

HELPS IN THE USE OF
GOOD ENGLISH

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GOOD ENGLISH:

A HAND-BOOK FOR ALL WHO DESIRE TO SPEAK
OR WRITE CORRECT ENGLISH.

BY

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"PRACTICAL RHETORIC," "STUDIES IN ENGLISH AND AMERI-
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"SCHOOL MANAGEMENT," ETC.

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BY ALBERT N. RAUB.

ALBERT N. RAUB
AUTHOR OF THE
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CITY OF PHILADELPHIA

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PREFACE.

Life THE object of this book is that of serving as a convenient hand-book for editors, lawyers, teachers, clergymen and others who have occasion to write or speak the English language, and who desire to do so in accordance with approved modern usage.

Discursion The aim of the author has been to make the book helpful to all who may find it necessary or interesting to consult its pages, especially on the subjects of Capital Letters, Syllabication, Syntax, Punctuation, Letter-Writing and Diction.

Only those points in Grammar have been discussed which, it is thought, may prove most helpful to those who desire to speak or write the language correctly.

Many sentences taken from the works of reputable writers, but illustrating violations of correct usage, have been incorporated in the book, and the proper corrections indicated, either in marks of parenthesis where a word has been improperly omitted or in brackets where the wrong word has been used by the author quoted.

A list of synonyms most frequently used, and a list of words most liable to be misused, as given in the book, ought to be both interesting and beneficial to all who desire to express themselves accurately.

The author hopes that the book may meet with the approval of all who are interested in the use of good English.

A. N. R.

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HELPS

IN THE USE OF

GOOD ENGLISH.

CAPITAL LETTERS.

IN the employment of capital letters usage is nearly uniform, though occasional differences exist in the application of some of the rules.

The following are the chief rules for the use of capital letters :

1. **The First Word in a Book, etc.**—The first word in every book, tract, essay, etc., and of every chapter or section, also the first word of every note, letter, or other writing, should begin with a capital letter.

2. **The First Word of a Sentence.**—The first word of every sentence or its equivalent should begin with a capital letter. Thus,

“Where have you been?” “It is a very pleasant day.”

3. **Numbered Clauses, etc.**—The first word of each of a series of numbered clauses or phrases should begin with a capital letter. Thus,

“He stated three things: 1. That he had not been present; 2. That his brother had not been present; 3. That neither had any desire to be present.”

4. **First Word of an Example.**—The first word of a clause or a sentence, when used as an example, should begin with a capital letter. Thus,

Ex. "To err is human."

5. **After an Introductory Word.**—The first word after an introductory word or clause should begin with a capital letter. Thus,

Resolved, "That all land should be taxed."

Be it enacted, etc., "That a tax of three mills," etc.

6. **In an Enumeration of Particulars.**—The first word of each new line in an enumeration of particulars, when arranged in lines, should begin with a capital letter. Thus,

The expenses of the committee were as follows:

For Advertising	\$4.20
For Clerk Hire	10.00
For Postage	7.00

It will be noticed that the chief items in a statement of this kind or in a bill begin with capital letters. Thus,

MR. JOHN HENDERSON,

To WILLIAM BROWN & Co., Dr.

To 4 lb. Coffee @ 30¢	\$1.20
" 10 lb. Sugar @ 6¢60
" 12 yd. Muslin @ 7¢84

7. **Direct Questions.**—The first word of a direct question should begin with a capital letter. Thus,

"The question is, Where can we get a better?"

This rule is taken also by some to cover an important statement. Thus,

"My remark was this: If he does not do the work properly, he must be dismissed."

8. **Direct Quotation.**—The first word of every direct quotation should begin with a capital letter. Thus,

The Bible says, "Blessed are the meek."

9. **Poetry.**—The first word of every line of poetry should begin with a capital letter. Thus,

"Now came still evening on, and twilight gray
Had in her sober livery all things clad."

10. **Proper Names.**—Every proper name should begin with a capital letter. Thus,

John, Susan, New York, Thomas Jefferson Jones.

11. **Particular Objects or Events.**—Words naming particular objects or events should begin with capital letters. Thus,

Niagara Falls, Fourth of July, The Statue of Liberty, The National Educational Association, The Park.

12. **Proper Adjectives.**—Adjectives derived from proper names should begin with capital letters. Thus,

English, American, Welsh, Johnsonian.

13. **Titles.**—Titles of honor, office, or respect, usually begin with capitals. Thus,

President Cleveland, General Grant, Superintendent Brooks, Sir Walter Scott, Mr. Williams, Richard the Third, Professor Greene, Colonel Meredith, Mrs. Johnson.

14. **Names of the Deity.**—All appellations of the Deity should begin with capital letters. Thus,

God, Almighty, the Divine Architect.

15. **I and O.**—The words I and O should always be written as capital letters.

16. **Book Titles.**—In the titles of books, or the sub-

jects of essays, etc., every noun, adjective, verb, and adverb, should begin with a capital letter. Thus,

“Helps in the Use of Good English.”

17. **Common Nouns.**—Common nouns, when strongly personified, should begin with capital letters. Thus,

“Come when his task of Fame is wrought.”

18. **The Bible.**—When reference is had to the divine origin of the Bible, the name of the book itself or any particular part of the book should begin with a capital letter. Thus,

“The Holy Bible”; “The Acts of the Apostles.”

When the Bible is spoken of simply as a book, as “Several bibles were sold on Saturday,” no capital is required.

Capital letters are used also to begin the names of other sacred writings, as The Koran, The Zend Avesta, etc.

19. **Specific Terms.**—The words state, academy, college, university, park, etc., when used specifically, either as nouns or as adjectives, should begin with capital letters, and at other times with smaller letters. Thus,

“The State, a state election; The College, a college course; A drive in the Park, the park along the river.”

The foregoing rules cover the ordinary cases where words should begin with capitals, but in the case of hand-bills, advertisements, etc., much is left to the discretion of the printer.

SPECIAL RULES.

The following special rules for the use of capital letters should be observed:

Letter Addresses.—In the address of a letter the first

word of the salutation and of the title should begin with capital letters, but no other words. Thus, we write,

Dear Sir, My dear Sir, My dear Aunt Lizzie, My very dear Mother, My much esteemed Friend, etc.

Letter Closing.—Much the same rule holds good here; namely, that only the first word and the title should begin with capital letters. Formerly, many writers began each word of the closing with a capital letter; thus, Yours Very Truly, but the best usage is against this at present, and one should write, Yours respectfully, Yours very truly,

I am, my dear Captain,

Your friend.

I am, Sir, with great esteem,

Your obedient servant.

A Series of Questions.—When a series of questions is propounded, each of which requires a separate answer, each question, though but part of a sentence, should begin with a capital letter. Thus,

What is one-third of 6? Of 18? Of 24?

What is the capital of Maine? Of Oregon? Of Missouri?

Indirect Quotations.—Indirect quotations do not require the use of capital letters.

Notice that in the following: Remember the maxim, "Honesty is the best policy," the quotation is introduced by the use of a capital letter, but the same thought may be conveyed indirectly without the use of either capital letter or quotation marks, as follows: Remember the maxim that honesty is the best policy.

Seasons, Months, and Days of the Week.—No capital letters are used in writing the names of the seasons, but it is different in writing the names of the months and the days of the week, which should always begin with capital letters. This is probably because some of the months and some of the days are named after deities and persons. Thus, January (*Janus*), March (*Mars*), May (*Maie*), June (*Juno*), July (*Julius Cæsar*), August (*Augustus Cæsar*), are all derived from proper names, and should begin with capital letters. In order to make the rule uniform, the name of each month should, therefore, begin with a capital letter. The same is true of the days of the week; thus, Sunday is *sun day*; Monday, *moon day*; Tuesday, *Tiw's day*; Wednesday, *Woden's day*; Thursday, *Thor's day*; Friday, *Friga's day*; Saturday, *Saturn's day*. Five at least of the names of the days of the week are derived from proper names and should begin with capital letters. In order, therefore, to make the rule uniform in its application, the names of the months and the days of the week should each begin with a capital letter.

Names of the Deity.—As stated in Rule 14, all appellations of the Deity should begin with capital letters, but usage with regard to writing pronouns referring to the Deity is not uniform. The most careful writers of English seem to favor the use of small letters rather than capitals in beginning these pronouns, except when the pronoun is equivalent to the name of the Deity. Relative pronouns, when referring to the Deity, begin with small letters. The following sentence shows the correct usage: "We prayed to Him who rules the world."

When a name usually applied to the Deity is applied to created beings, no capital is used; as, "Lord of *lords*, King of *kings*."

When the word "heaven" is used to mean the Deity, it should begin with a capital letter; as, "May Heaven protect us," but when it means the firmament, the word should begin with a small letter. When it refers to the abode of the blest, it is written by some with a capital letter and by others without. Usage is not uniform.

The adjectives universal, eternal, divine, omniscient, etc., when applied to God, need not begin with capital letters, but usage requires capital letters in the following: Almighty God, Infinite One, First Cause, Supreme Being.

Titles.—When a title is part of a name, the word indicating the title should begin with a capital letter; as, President Monroe, King James, Colonel Thompson; but when such titles follow the name no capitals are used. Thus, we would say, "James Monroe was president of the United States," "James II. was king of England."

When a title precedes a proper name for the purpose of explanation, as, "The apostle Paul," "The prophet Isaias," "The poet Milton," it begins with a small letter.

When it is desirable to make the title take the place of the person's name, the title is usually begun with a capital letter, as in the following: "The President will give us an audience at 10 o'clock;" "The Teacher will begin his lectures this morning."

In the foregoing sentences reference is made to a particular president or teacher, and the word in either case has the force of a proper noun.

The word "state" is one which is frequently written improperly. Where it is a specific term it should begin with a capital letter; as, "The State is responsible;" where it is not a specific term the word should begin with a small letter, as in the following: "New Jersey

and other states bordering on the Ocean." In some printing offices the direction to the compositors, especially the learners, is to begin the word "state" with a capital letter wherever it occurs. This is wrong. It is correct to begin the word "state" with a capital letter only where it refers to a particular state, or where the individual name of the state having been referred to, the word "state" is made to take the place of the proper name itself. Thus, we write, "The State of Virginia was settled by the English;" "Pennsylvania lies south of New York; the State is noted for its manufactures."

Even some of our best writers have violated these rules. Thus, Bancroft writes of the "canabrakes of the state of Louisiana," and Everett speaks of "the union of the States."

Objects or Events Made Particular.—Words which particularize objects or events give them the force of proper nouns, and they should therefore begin with capital letters. Thus, we may write, "The young man is attending college," but "The College is the most important institution of the village." Similarly we write, "The City has a beautiful park," but "The Park is a pleasant place of resort."

When certain dates become the names of special events, the chief words of the date should begin with capital letters. We may write, "Independence was declared on the fourth day of July, 1776," but "The Fourth of July is one of our chief holidays." So also, we write, "The revolution of the American colonies against England was entirely successful," or "The American Revolution led to the independence of the American colonies."

Names of Professions, etc.—When the name applied to a profession or calling is considered in its widest sense,

the best usage is in favor of beginning the word with a capital letter. Thus, Mandeville says, "For the Bar or the Pulpit." It would be better to write, "The calling of the Teacher is honorable," rather than "The calling of the teacher is honorable." So also, "The prosperity of the Merchant depends much upon his honesty and integrity," meaning merchants as a class, is a better form than "The prosperity of the merchant," etc., which might refer to an individual merchant.

Personification.—According to Rule 17, common nouns, when strongly personified, should begin with capital letters; thus, "The entrance to the garden of Hope was by two gates, one of which was kept by Reason, and the other by Fancy." But not every noun that is personified should be so written. Only those which are used in the sense of proper names should begin with capital letters. In the sentence from Milton, "Wave your tops, ye pines," the word pines, though addressed, does not represent persons, and it is not therefore written with a capital letter.

Words Derived from Proper Names.—Words derived from proper names usually begin with capital letters; as, American, Welsh, French, Latinize, Wesleyan, English, etc.

The two words "italics" and "italicize" are, however, frequently written without the use of capital letters.

Whenever a word derived from a proper name has lost its reference to the original name, and has taken its place as a common noun or a common adjective, it no longer is written with a capital letter. Thus, *damask* no longer has reference to *Damascus*, the word from which it was derived. So also *colossal* no longer has reference to *Colossus*, nor *stentorian* to *Stentor*, nor *godlike* to *God*, nor *artesian* to *Artois*, nor *peach* to *Persia*, nor *muslin* to *Mo-*

sul; hence none of these words nor any of their kind are written with capital letters. The same principle applies to the writing of such words as china-ware, champagne, daguerreotype, galvanize, laconic, academic, and others.

Titles of Books, etc.—Sometimes it is difficult to determine the exact meaning of an oral expression that may be made perfectly clear when written, by the use or the non-use of a capital letter. Thus, in spoken language we detect no difference between “Webster’s Speeches” and “Webster’s speeches.” When the expressions are written or printed we recognize that “Webster’s Speeches” is the title of a book, while “Webster’s speeches” means the speeches of Webster. So also, “Longfellow’s Poems” and “the poems of Longfellow” have a different meaning, determined by the use or the non-use of a capital letter.

The same principle applies when the adjective *new* precedes a noun. Thus, “The new Ironsides” refers to a new steamer named Ironsides, but in the expression “The New Ironsides,” the name of the steamer is “*The New Ironsides*.” The new Ironsides is a new boat; the New Ironsides may be either new or old.

So we write also of the *principal* of a school when we refer to his duties, but when we refer to his title we write of him as the *Principal* of the school. Princeton University was formerly the “College of New Jersey,” and while that was its proper title it should have been spoken of as “The College of New Jersey.” If the name Princeton were necessarily used, then it should have been written not “Princeton College,” but “The Princeton college;” that is, the college at Princeton. Notice the difference in the two expressions, “William Penn with a few other Friends” and “William Penn

with a few of his friends." Notice also the difference between "The Planter's House," a hotel, and "The planter's house," the residence of a planter.

The Lock Haven normal school is a normal school at Lock Haven, but the proper title is "The Central State Normal School of Pennsylvania." So also the Newark academy is an academy at Newark whose corporate title is "The Academy of Newark."

Names of Places.—In many cases words originally beginning with small letters are now written with capitals because they have become names of places. Thus, Clark's ferry has been changed to Clark's Ferry, Pike's peak to Pike's Peak, Chadd's ford to Chadds Ford, Dobb's ferry to Dobbs Ferry.

Names of Cities.—In cases where the word city is used with a proper name, "city" should begin with a capital letter only when it forms part of the name. Thus, we write Jersey City, Atlantic City, Oil City, Mahanoy City, Salt Lake City, because the word city in each case is a part of the corporate name; but the word city in such expressions as New York city, Philadelphia city, Baltimore city, Washington city, is not written with a capital letter, because in none of these does it form a part of the corporate name. We may speak of Baltimore, New York, Boston, etc., but not of Jersey, Atlantic, Oil, or Salt Lake as cities.

Added Names.—When a new proper name is formed from an old one by the addition of a word, the latter becomes a part of the complete name and should begin with a capital letter. Thus, Philadelphia, West Philadelphia; Chicago, South Chicago, Chicago Junction; Baltimore, South Baltimore, North Baltimore; Chester, West Chester, South Chester; Canada, Upper Canada; Virginia, West Virginia.

Words and Phrases.—The rule requiring a capital letter at the beginning of a sentence applies also to words or phrases comprising an entire saying of some other person when introduced as having been said by him. Thus, "He shouted, 'Help, help!'" "Every tongue shall exclaim with heart-felt joy, 'Welcome! welcome! La Fayette.'"

De, du, von, etc.—In general, the best usage favors beginning these words with capital letters, especially where they begin a heading or a sentence. Thus, the correct forms are Van Buren, Van Dyck, Du Pont, O'Reilly. Bulwer writes uncertainly "Captain de Caxton;" "the old De Caxtons," seeming to indicate that the absence of a capital is correct when a name or a title precedes the *de*; but Hood writes "Wolfgang von Dilke;" "even Von Raumer."

One Capital Letter.—Goold Brown, in his "Grammar of Grammars," gives as one of his rules on capital letters, "Compound proper names which by analogy incline to a union of their parts without a hyphen, should be so written, and have but one capital;" as, Eastport, Eastville, Westfield, Westtown, Whitehaven, Germantown, Blackrock, Mountpleasant, Dekalb, Newfoundland, etc. He adds on another page, "I would observe that perhaps there is nothing more puzzling in grammar than to find out, amidst all the diversity of random writing and wild guess-work in printing, the true way in which the compound names of places should be written."

In writing the names of places containing the word *Haven*, usage is not uniform, but the better plan is to begin both words with capital letters. Thus, Lock Haven, New Haven, White Haven. The same is true in words of which "Mount" forms a part. The proper

forms are Mount Holyoke, Mount Auburn, Mount Pleasant, Rocky Mount. So also the forms De Kalb and Des Moines are preferable to Dekalb and Desmoines.

Two Capital Letters.—Brown gives the following as one of the rules for the use of capital letters: “The compounding of a name under one capital should be avoided when the general analogy of other similar terms suggests a separation under two.” He then gives the following as examples: “Ben Chat, Ben Golich, Ben Nore,” etc. Following this rule he decides that the words East, West, North, South, denoting relative position, and the word New when it distinguishes a place by contrast, require generally a separation of the words and a capital letter for each; thus, East Greenwich, West Greenwich, North Manchester, South Manchester, New York, New Haven.

There are, however, many exceptions to this rule, as in the names Easthampton, Northampton, Westchester, Southport.

It may be said that in names like Westchester and Newcastle usage varies. Any of these forms, New-Castle, New Castle, Newcastle, has authority for its usage. Whether the words are connected by a hyphen or written separately, each part should begin with a capital letter, but only one capital is used when the words are joined without a hyphen.

The conditions under which two capital letters are needed are as follows:

1. When an adjective is added to a proper name, as in New York, New England, North Carolina, South Dakota, Great Pedee, West Cleveland, Lower Canada.

2. When a proper noun with a possessive termination is used with a common noun following it; as, Glenn's Falls, Baffin's Bay, Martha's Vineyard, Booth's Corner.

When names of this kind are united they drop the possessive sign and have but one capital letter; as, Gravesend, Crowsnest, Whitestown, Scottsboro, Pennsburg.

3. When two common nouns with a preposition between them are used as the name of a place; as, Isle of Shoals, Lake of the Woods, Cape of Good Hope, Fish-kill-on-the-Hudson.

Complex Names.—In names consisting of two words, both words are written with capital letters if the common name precedes the particular; thus, Mount Washington, Lake Superior, Cape May, Bayou Teche. When the common name of the object, as bay, mountain, city, river, etc., follows the particular name, usage varies. If the name of the object seems necessary to make the expression intelligible, it is best to begin both words with capital letters. Thus, when we speak of Hudson's Bay, we could not appropriately call it "the Hudson's;" so also of Long Island Sound, Albemarle Sound, Hampton Roads, Cape Cod Bay, Delaware Bay, White Mountains, Rocky Mountains. Both capital letters, in each case, seem to be necessary in these words, especially in the example last named. Most mountains being rocky there must be a distinction between "the rocky mountains" and "the Rocky Mountains."

In complex names where the first word conveys the meaning intelligibly without the use of the other, the capital letter in the second word does not seem necessary. Thus, we may refer to the Susquehanna river as "the Susquehanna," to the Hudson river as "the Hudson," to the Mississippi river as "the Mississippi," to the Catskill mountains as "the Catskills," and our language will in every case be intelligible. The words mountains, rivers, etc., in such expressions need no capital letters.

The same is true of nearly all the oceans. We may write "the Atlantic ocean" or "the Atlantic;" "the Pacific ocean" or "the Pacific," the distinguishing name of the natural body of land or water being sufficient to make the meaning intelligible. The distinction is clearly shown in speaking of "the Delaware" and "Delaware Bay." The first term would not be mistaken for the second. The first refers only to the river.

When an adjective forms part of a geographical name it should begin with a capital letter; as, Green Mountains, Green Bay, White Mountains, Red River.

A good rule for the use of capital letters in complex names is as follows: When both names are necessary to express the meaning, each should begin with a capital letter; thus, Green Mountains, Casco Bay, Bering's Strait, Berkshire Hills, Chapel Hill, Rocky Point, Mammoth Cave, Block Island, Michigan City, Fairview Village, Bunker Hill, Central Park.

When only one name is needed to make the meaning intelligible only the proper name of the object should begin with a capital letter; as, Missouri river, Adirondack mountains, Mediterranean sea, Pacific ocean, Washington city.

Street.—St. as the abbreviation for street is by some written without a capital letter; but there seems to be no good reason why this should deviate from the rule. Chestnut St. is better than Chestnut st. It requires the two terms to make the name. It is true that authority may be given for either form. Irving wrote the expression, "Mulberry street," and Bryant the expression, "Grand Street," but John Wilson, an excellent authority on such matters, writes "School Street," and the Atlantic Monthly, "Nassau Street."

Goold Brown seems to claim that a hyphen should

occasionally be used to make an expression clear, and he would write "The New-York Directory," claiming that without the hyphen the phrase might mean the new directory for York: but this position is not tenable. If a new directory for York were meant, the word "new" should not begin with a capital letter, and the expression should read "The new York Directory." The "New York Directory" is a directory for New York, either new or old. If a new one is meant it may be written "The new New York Directory," in which the second word new is part of the name of the city. In general, it may be said that unless there is good reason for using a capital letter it is better to use a small letter instead. The tendency of the uncultured is to use more capitals than are necessary.

Errors in the use of capital letters are frequent even among reputable writers. We append some examples to show how even the best informed may sometimes violate the current rules.

1. The Lord mayor of London's authority.—*Murray's Grammar*.

2. We stayed a month at lord Lyttleton's, the ornament of his country.—*Id*.

3. The Chestnut ridge is about twenty-five miles west of the Alleghanies, and Laurel ridge ten miles further [farther] west.—*Balbi's Geography*.

4. Staten Island, an island of New York, nine miles below New York City.—*Universal Gazetteer*.

5. He who sells a christian sells the grace of God.—*Magazine*.

6. In colleges and halls in ancient days,
There dwelt a sage called discipline.—*Wayland*.

Goold Brown gives the following as written incorrectly. They are taken from *Williams' Universal Gazetteer*.

"Salt Creek, the name of four towns in different parts of

Ohio; White Clay, a hundred in Newcastle county, Delaware; Newcastle, a town and halfshire of Newcastle county, Delaware; Sing Sing, a village in West Chester county, New York; White Water, a town of Hamilton county, Ohio; Red Hook, a town of Dutchess county, New York, on the Hudson; Kinderhook, a town of Columbia county, New York; Charles City, James City, Elizabeth City, names of counties, not cities."

Mr. Brown would in each of these names join the two words with a hyphen or reject the second capital letter and make each name a name of one word. Present usage does not sustain Mr. Brown.

NOTE.—As regards the name White Clay, in Delaware, which is the name of both a creek and a political division known as a hundred, a peculiar local pronunciation has become established which would not be recognized elsewhere. The name of the stream is known as Whitely Creek, though spelled White Clay Creek, and of the hundred, *Whitely Creek* hundred.

SYLLABICATION.

Syllabication is the process of dividing words into the syllables of which they are composed.

The following are the most important principles to be followed in the division of words into syllables :

1. Words should be divided usually according to their prefixes, suffixes, or grammatical endings if they have any. Thus, *re new*, *larg er*, *wis dom*, *hurt ful*, *rock y*, *ci der*.

2. Compound words should be divided into the simple words of which they are composed. Thus, *mill wheel*, *pen man*, *fore most*, *tea kettle*.

3. When the derivation and the pronunciation seem to conflict, the division should be made according to the pronunciation rather than the derivation. Thus, *rep re sent a tive* rather than *re pre sent a tive*; *ap a thy* rather than *a path y*; *pred i cate* rather than *pre di cate*; *ther mom e ter* rather than *ther mo me ter*; *as cribe* rather than *a scribe*.

4. In dividing words we should give to every syllable all the letters necessary to the correct pronunciation of that syllable. Thus, *pref ace* not *pre face*, *ma tron* not *mat ron*, *twi n kle* not *twink le*, *bril liant* not *brill iant*.

5. A word having two or more syllables may be divided at the end of a line, but only at the end of a syllable. In applying this principle the part on either line should consist of two or more letters, otherwise the word should not be divided.

It is important also that the word should be so divided

as to convey no misconception at first glance. Thus, a word like *occurences* is better divided *occur rences* than *occurrenc es*.

6. Two or more words conveying a single idea should be united ; as, *beehive*, *steamboat*, *cornplanter*.

7. Consonants should be joined with the vowels whose sounds they modify. This is but another form of stating the third principle named. Thus, we divide *reformation* into *re for ma tion* or *re for ma tion* according to the meaning of the word as governed by the pronunciation of the first syllable.

8. Diphthongs and triphthongs are not divided. Thus, we write *buoy ant*, *loy al*, *boy ish*.

When two vowels come together and do not form a diphthong, they form parts of separate syllables, and they may be divided ; as, *a e ri al*, *co op er ate*, *zo ol o gy*, etc.

9. When a single consonant comes between two vowels, if it does not shorten the sound of the first vowel it goes to the second ; as, *re bel*, *ea sy*, *co zy*, *era zy*, *stu dent*.

10. When a single consonant comes between two vowels it goes to the first vowel if the vowel sound is thereby shortened ; as, *reb el*, *heav y*, *stud y*.

11. When a mute and a liquid come between two vowels the same principle applies ; the first consonant goes to the first vowel if that vowel is thereby shortened ; as, *cit ron*, *pat ronize* ; but when the first vowel is not shortened both consonants go to the second vowel ; as, *pu trid*, *pa trol*.

12. When a liquid and a mute coming between two vowels blend with the first vowel, they are generally not separated ; as, *post age*, *west ern*.

13. When a liquid and a mute coming between two

vowels do not blend with the first vowel they are separated, as in *dan ger*.

In other cases two consonants occurring together are usually separated, as in *gen der*, *em pire*, *col lec tion*.

Close attention to principle Seven would have saved some of our grammarians grave doubts, one of whom at least seems to be in a quandary as to whether the words *river* and *fever* should be divided *ri ver* and *fe ver* or *riv er* and *fev er*.

It will be noted, by this same principle, that Walker's rule that a consonant coming between two vowels must go to the latter, is incorrect; but even principle Seven, while general in its application, seems to have some exceptions in such words as *rising*, *sizable*, and *dronish*.

THE USE OF THE HYPHEN.

The use of the hyphen is considered here because of its importance in connection with syllabication.

Compound words, or those made up of two or more words, sometimes require a hyphen to connect their parts.

The following are the most important principles governing the use of the hyphen:

1. Permanent compounds, such as *bookseller*, *penman*, and *shoemaker*, are consolidated; while temporary compounds, such as *good-natured*, *laughter-loving*, etc., require a hyphen.

2. Words regularly united, and usually known as compound words, should not be broken. Thus, *railroad* is a better form than *rail road*, *red-hot* is better than *red hot*, and *well-being* better than *well being*.

3. The hyphen is used to join the parts of compound words that do not sufficiently coalesce without it; as, *dew-drop*, *curly-headed*, *rosy-cheeked*, *forty-five*, *to-night*.

4. The compounding of words is sometimes necessary to make the meaning clear. Thus, there is a well-defined difference between a *glass-house*, a place for making glass, and a *glass house*, which is a house made of glass. So, also, the distinction between a *live oak*, a living oak, and a *live-oak*, a species of evergreen, is made clear by the use of the hyphen. So, also, the hyphen makes clear the distinction between a *singing bird* and a *singing-bird*, a *dog's ear* and a *dog's-ear*, *many colored goods* and *many-colored goods*.

When part of a word is common to two or more consecutive words it should be left separate or be used with both words. Thus, we may write of "the minute and the second hand of a watch;" better, "the minute-hand and the second-hand of a watch."

When several compounds occur together, it is usually best to combine them in groups; as, "Cripple-Creek gold-mines;" "Broad-Mountain coal-fields."

A phrase used as an epithet or as a modifier is compounded, and the hyphen used; as, a "never-to-be-forgotten" event, a "flower-bedecked" meadow, an "I-am-surprised" expression of countenance.

When compounds are formed by the union of a possessive and the noun limited, if the meaning is literal, both possessive sign and hyphen disappear; thus, *tradesman*, *doomsday*, *ratsbane*. When these same terms have not a literal meaning, as *hound's-tongue*, *bear's-foot*, or *wolf's-bane*, names of plants, both possessive sign and hyphen are retained.

When the compound term is used as an adjective, both the possessive sign and the hyphen are retained, as in the expressions, "a camel's-hair shawl," "neat's-foot oil," "a bird's-eye view."

A phrase having a possessive and used as a proper

name retains the possessive sign but does not take the hyphen; as, *Hare's Corner*, *Sewell's Point*.

Cardinal numbers from twenty to one hundred are written with a hyphen; thus, *twenty-one*, *sixty-seven*, *eighty-four*. So also fractions; as, *two-thirds*, *three-fourths*, *nine-tenths*.

A foreign phrase that is used as an epithet, or whose parts have so lost their meaning as to become Anglicized, is written with a hyphen; as, *piano-forte*, *billet-doux*. But if the words convey their original meaning, they remain separate and no hyphen is used; thus, *habeas corpus*, *scire facias*, *casus belli*.

Prefixes, or similar parts, are not consolidated with the rest of the word if they stand before a capital letter, and the hyphen is used to separate; thus, *pre-Adamite*, *ex-President*, *Anglo-Saxon*, *anti-Democratic*.

The hyphen is used also to preserve the separate sense of the parts of a compound term, as in *electromagnetism*, *vice-admiral*, *hydro-carbon*.

The words *to-day*, *to-night* and *to-morrow* should always be written with a hyphen.

The tendency to consolidation in compounds seems to be well marked. Thus, the word *schoolhouse* was originally written as two words, *school house*; later the hyphen was inserted, making it a single word, *school-house*, each syllable taking equal stress; later still the accent was shifted to the word *school*, and the hyphen was dropped, and it seems to be the general rule in these compounds that where the accent shifts to a single syllable the hyphen disappears.

Some amusing errors, occasioned by the misuse of the hyphen, are here presented, together with the names of the authors.

Webster's Spelling Book tells us that "men load hay

with a pitch fork;" also that "it is no more right to steal apples or water melons than money."

The following are taken from prominent writers:

"She formed a very singular and unheard of project."—*Goldsmith*.

"I judge not my ownself, for I know not my ownself."—*Wayland*.

"Our discriminations of this matter have been but four footed instinct."—*Rush, on the Voice*.

"A tin peddler will sell tin vessels as he travels."—*Noah Webster*.

"The town has been for several days well behaved."—*The Spectator*.

"Both the ten and eight syllable verses are iambic."—*Blair's Grammar*.

"Obscured, where highest woods, impenetrable
To star or sun-light, spread the umbrage broad."

—*Milton*.

"He manylanguage'd nations has surveyed."—*Pope*.

"Bluntwitted lord, ignoble in manner."—*Shakespeare*.

"You might have trussed him and all his apparel into an eel-skin." [Notice there is but one accent.]—*Shakespeare*.

"They may serve as land-marks to show what lies in the direct way of truth."—*Locke*.

"A falling off at the end always hurts greatly."—*Blair*.

"The north west winds from the high lands produce cold, clear weather."—*Webster*.

"The soldiers, with down cast eyes, seemed to beg for mercy."—*Goldsmith*.

"His head was covered with a coarse worn out piece of cloth."—*Goldsmith*.

"Constantia saw that the hand writing agreed with the contents of the letters."—*Addison*.

"Hunting, and other out door sports, are generally pursued."—*Bulbi's Geography*.

"The consequences of any action are to be considered in a two fold light."—*Wayland*.

“The time when screech-owls cry and bandogs howl.”—*Shakespeare*.

“The greatest part of such tables would be of little use to English men.”—*Priestly's Grammar*.

“They have put me in a silk night-gown and a gaudy fool's cap.”—*Addison*.

An old song runs,

“We'll wander where the cows-lips bloom.”

SPELLING.

It is not the province of this book to decide whether the rules for spelling should be taught in schools or not. There are many words, of course, to which the usual rules do not apply, but that is no reason why we should not familiarize ourselves with the rules so far as they do apply.

The following are the most important rules for spelling:

1. **Final E.**—Words ending in silent *e* generally drop the *e* on receiving an additional syllable beginning with a vowel; as, *ice, icy; move, moving; advise, advisable.*

2. Words ending in silent *e* generally retain the *e* on receiving an additional syllable beginning with a consonant; as, *wise, wisely; shame, shameful.*

The following are exceptions to the rule:

Duly, truly, wholly, awful, nursling, wisdom, judgment, abridgment, acknowledgment, argument, and (according to some authorities) lodgment.

3. **Final Y.**—Words ending in *y* preceded by a consonant sound change the *y* into *i* before any other termination or additional syllable than *'s* and those beginning with *i*; as, *pretty, prettily.*

The following are exceptions:

a. *Y* is changed to *e* in *beauteous, duteous, bounteous, piteous, plenteous.*

b. In the derivatives of *dry* (except *drier, driest*), *shy, sky, sly, spry, wry*, the *y* is not changed.

4. When a vowel precedes the final *y*, or when a suf-

fix is added beginning with *i*, the *y* is generally retained in words receiving an additional termination; as, *boy*, *boyish*.

The following are exceptions to the rule:

Pay, *paid*; lay, *laid*, *lain*; day, *daily*; say, *said*, *saith*; slay, *slain*, together with the compounds of the foregoing.

5. **Final Consonant.**—Monosyllables and words accented on the last syllable, ending with a single consonant preceded by a single vowel, double the final consonant on taking an additional syllable beginning with a vowel; as, run, *running*; begin, *beginning*.

The following are the exceptions:

a. In the derivatives of the word *gas*, the *s* is never doubled.

b. The letters *x*, *k*, *v*, are never doubled.

6. When a word ends with two consonants, when the last consonant is preceded by a diphthong, or when the accent is not on the last syllable, the final consonant is not doubled on taking an additional syllable beginning with a vowel; as, fight, *fighting*; benefit, *benefited*.

Crystal, *crystalline* is an exception.

Monosyllables which end in *f*, *l*, or *s*, preceded by a single vowel, end in a double consonant; as, *off*, *will*, *glass*.

The words *clef*, *if*, *of* are written with a single *f*, and the words *as*, *gas*, *has*, *was*, *is*, *his*, *this*, *yes*, *us*, *thus*, *pus*, with a single *s*.

Monosyllables ending in any other consonant than *f*, *l*, or *s* do not end with a double consonant.

The following are exceptions: *add*, *ebb*, *egg*, *err*, *inn*, *burr*, *purr*, *butt*, *buzz*, *fuzz*.

The words *in*, *bur*, *but*, conform to the rule.

Final *x*, being equivalent to *ks*, is not doubled, nor is the final consonant doubled when it follows a single vowel preceded by *qu*, which is really equivalent to *kw*.

If the derivative does not retain the accent on the last syllable of the root-word, the final consonant is not usually doubled; thus, *refer'*, *ref'erence*, *referred'*; *prefer'*, *pref'erence*, *pref'erable*, *preferred'*, *prefer'rible*; *infer'*, *in'ference*, *in'ferable*, *inferred'*, *infer'rible*.

Letters doubled in the Latin are usually doubled in the English without regard to accent or any other principle; as, *excel*, *excellent*, *excellence*; *inflamm*, *inflammable*, *inflammation*; *Britain*, *Britannia*, *Britannica*.

The dictionaries of Webster and Worcester differ somewhat in the application of Rule 5, with reference to the spelling of derivatives whose primitives end in *l*. Worcester has *reveller*, *traveller*, etc., while Webster follows the rule, and writes the words, *leveler*, *reveler*, *traveler*, etc.

There seems to be no necessity for the principle quoted by Gould Brown, that the final *l* of words ending in *el* must be doubled before another vowel, lest the power of *e* be mistaken and a syllable be lost in such words as *traveler*, *duelist*, *marvellous*, *gravelly*. Only the last of these seems to require the doubling of the *l* to distinguish it from the word *grave'ly*.

When *ly* follows *l*, as in *really*, *orally*, *woolly*, etc., there is no doubling, but simply a joining of the suffix *ly* to the root. When, however, *ly* follows words ending in *ll*, one of the *l*'s is dropped, as in *full*, *fully*; *droll*, *drolly*.

In compound words, when three letters of a kind come together, one is dropped, as in *chaffinch*, or a hyphen is used, as in *ill-looking*, *still-life*.

In general, words ending with any double letter retain both letters when followed by any termination not be-

ginning with the same letter, and drop one of the letters when followed by a termination beginning with the same letter; as, agree, *agreement*; free, *freedom*, *freer*; see, *seeing*, *scer*; shrill, *shrillness*, *shrilly*.

Some writers reject one *l* when *full* or *ness* is added to a word; as, skill, *skilful*; but Webster and others retain the *ll*, and write *willful*, *skillful*.

In derivatives from the words *bias*, *worship*, *kidnap*, some writers double the final consonant, but the usual custom is to follow the rule, and write the words, *biased*, *worshiped*, *worshiper*, *kidnaper*.

According to Gould Brown, the final *ll* is peculiar to monosyllables and their compounds, with the few derivatives formed from such roots by prefixes; hence, all other words that end in *l* should end with a single *l*; as, excel, repel, withal, control, damsel, consul, tranquil.

The words *distill* and *instill*, as given by Webster, may be properly written with annul, until, as *instil*, *distil*, because they are not derivatives of *till*.

Most writers agree that words ending in *ee* or *ge*, should retain the *e* before *able* or *ous*, to preserve the soft sound of *e* or *j*; as in *traceable*, *courageous*, *chargeable*.

The *e* is also retained in *singeing*, *swingeing*, *tingeing*, to avoid confusion with the words *singing*, *swinging*, *tinging*.

Judgment, *abridgment*, *acknowledgment* are now written without the *e*, but the older authorities, Walker, Cobb, Lowth, Beattie and others, wrote these words with the *e* retained.

When the final *e* is preceded by a vowel it is sometimes omitted on taking an additional syllable; as, due, *duly*; awe, *awful*; true, *truly*; argue, *argument*; blue, *bluish*; but we write *blueness*, *trueness*, *eyeless*.

While the rule for the changing of the final *y* to *i*, when preceded by a consonant, applies to derivatives, it does not apply to compounds. Thus, we have *penniless* but *pennyworth*, *merciful* but *mercy-seat*.

Before *ing* and *ish* the final *y* is retained to prevent the doubling of *i*; as, *pity*, *pitying*, *baby*, *babyish*.

Words ending in *ie*, dropping the *e*, change the *i* into *y* to prevent doubling the *i* on taking an additional syllable beginning with *i*; as, *die*, *dying*; *lie*, *lying*.

Ize or ise?—In words ending in *ize* or *ise*, sounded alike, as in *size* and *wise*, *z* is used in such as are formed essentially by means of the termination; as, *apologize*, *philosophize*, *sympathize*, *brutalize*; and *s* is used in such as are formed essentially by means of prefixes; as, *rise*, *arise*, *advise*, *devise*, *supervise*, *surmise*, *comprise*, *compromise*.

There are, however, many exceptions to this rule, as in the words *advertise*, *catechise*, *chastise*, *criticise*, *exercise*, *exorcise*, *merchandise*; also, *size*, *assize*, *capsize*, *detonize*, *recognize*.

If the rule could be made effective it would be the means of rejecting many variable spellings.

Some words ending in *ll* drop one *l* in composition; as, *all*, *always*; *full*, *beautiful*, *artful*; *well*, *welfare*.

Of words ending in *or* or *our*, there are more than three hundred, but few of them now, in America at least, retain the form *our*. *Labour*, *behaviour*, *honour*, and *endeavour*, though occasionally so written in England, are, in the United States, written with the termination *or* instead of *our*, and this whole class of words will probably at no distant day become uniform in the use of the termination *or*, just as the *k* has disappeared from such words as *musick*, *publick*, *logick*, etc.

Able and ible.—It is frequently difficult to remember which of these endings to use in the writing of

certain words. Is it *collectable* or *collectible*? The only safe guide seems to be one's knowledge of Latin. For the first conjugation the termination is *abilis*, from which we get *able*, as in *arable*. For the second conjugation the termination is *ibilis*, from which we get *ible*, as in *docible*. For the third and the fourth conjugation it is *ibilis*, giving us *ible*. But to one who has not been a student of Latin these rules will be of little use, and yet nothing more satisfactory can be offered.

The tendency at the present time in the case of such words as *center*, is to use the termination *ter* rather than *tre*, though either is correct, and we may write *center* or *centre*, *theater* or *theatre*.

Many words of the language have two or more forms, with authority for each; as, *plough*, *plow*; *inquiry*, *enquiry*; *hight*, *height*; *indorse*, *endorse*; *meter*, *metre*.

Frequently words are written by inserting an apostrophe for an omitted letter or letters. Thus, we have *don't* for *do not*, *doesn't* for *does not*, *isn't* for *is not*, *won't* for *will not*, the old form of *will not*, *I'll* for *I will*, *sha'n't* for *shall not*, *ma'am* for *madam*, *'tis* and *it's* for *it is*, *e'en* for *even*, *e'er* for *ever*, *o'er* for *over*, *pr'ythee* for *I pray thee*, *o'clock* for *of the clock*, and many others.

Ie or ei?—In words containing the combinations *ie* or *ei*, *c* is usually followed by *ei* and the other consonants by *ie*, but there are some exceptions to this rule; as, *seize*, *seizure*, *leisure*, *weird*.

Always write *c* with *ian*, never *tian*.

A late writer on orthography says there are only eleven *cies*, derived from *arefy*, *calefy*, *humefy*, *liquefy*, *madefy*, *rarefy*, *putrefy*, *tabefy*, *torrefy*, *stupefy*, *defy*; thus, *liquefied*, *rarefied*, etc. All the others are *ifies*; as, *simplify*, *simplified*, *verify*, *verifies*, *verified*. Even of the eleven *cies*, not more than six are words in common use.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

THE object of this book is not to give a full discussion of the subject of English Grammar, but simply to present such points in both the etymology and the syntax of our language as are likely to be interesting and useful to writers and speakers.

There are many parts of grammar which, while useful and interesting to the student and the teacher of English, are of comparatively little importance to one who desires simply to know how to write or speak the language correctly. These it has been thought best to omit, as being in a measure foreign to the purpose of giving practical help in the use of good English.

The words of our language are divided according to their use into classes called parts of speech. These classes are known as *nouns*, *pronouns*, *adjectives*, *verbs*, *adverbs*, *prepositions*, *conjunctions*, and *interjections*. Under this classification adjectives are made to include articles, and verbs to include participles.

Every word in the English language may be placed in some one of these classes, according to the use made of the word in expressing thought.

Each of these classes has its special function,—the noun to represent names of things; the pronoun to act as a substitute for a noun; the verb to express action, state or being; the adjective to modify the meaning of a noun or a pronoun; the adverb to modify the meaning of an adjective, a verb, or another adverb; the

preposition to show relation; the conjunction to connect; and the interjection to express emotion.

NOUNS.

Any name of an object is a *noun*. The word object, as here used, is meant to include anything that can be thought of, whether perceptible to the senses or not. For instance, the senses give us no perception of time, cause, space, and other intuitive ideas, or of spirit, soul, or the mind itself, but we know that all these things exist, and their names are therefore classed as nouns.

The names of signs, symbols, words, etc., are nouns when spoken of, as the italicised words in the following sentences: "*A* is a vowel;" "*The* is usually an article;" "*I* is a pronoun;" "*+* (*plus*) is the sign of addition."

Any part of a sentence when used as a name may be called a noun, as the phrase *admission free* in the following: "*Admission free*" was posted on the walls.

The most important division of nouns, so far as writing correctly is concerned, is that into Common and Proper nouns; that is, names representing classes; as, *boy, girl, ocean, city*; and nouns having individual or particular names; as, *John, Mary, Atlantic, Philadelphia*.

The chief thing to be observed in the writing of nouns is that every proper noun should begin with a capital letter.

When a proper noun is made to denote a class, as "He was the Cicero of his age;" that is, "the orator of his age," it becomes a common noun, but the capital letter is retained.

When a common noun is used as the name of a particular object, it becomes a proper noun, and is written with a capital letter; as, "The Park;" "The College;" "The River."

When two or more words are used to express but one proper name, as *General Meade, William Henry Russell, Queen Victoria, Duke of Kent, Chesapeake Bay*, it constitutes but one name, known as a complex proper noun, and each of its principal or component parts begins with a capital letter.

When a noun consists of two or more parts consolidated or united by a hyphen, as *grandfather, son-in-law*, it is known as a *compound* noun.

Many proper names, of which there are said to be over 70,000 of places alone, had their origin in common names or common adjectives; thus, *Brook, Dale, Hill, Woods, Rivers, Waters*,—names of natural objects; *Brown, White, Green, Black, Gray*,—names of colors; *Smith, Carpenter, Driver, Scaman, Sailor, Fisher, Bishop*,—names of occupations; *Wolf, Fox, Sheep, Bear, Beaver, Hare*,—names of animals.

Frequent compounds occur, as *Whiteman, Greenman, Greenwood, Gottlieb* (God love), *Greenhut* (green hat), *Peterson* (son of Peter), *Johnson, Jackson, Williamson*.

Nouns are further divided into *collective, verbal, and abstract*.

The collective noun is the name of a group or collection; thus, *flock* (of sheep), *herd* (of cattle or swine), *drove* (of horses), *covey* (of partridges), *audience* (of hearers), *bevy* (of girls), *group* (of paintings), *crowd* (of people), *congregation* (of people), *school* (of learners), are all collective nouns.

NUMBER.

One of the chief things to be considered in connection with nouns is **number**.

1. Usually nouns form their plurals by annexing *s* to the singular when the sound of that letter will coalesce

with the last sound of the singular form of the word; as, girl, *girls*; tree, *trees*; book, *books*.

2. When the sound of *s* will not coalesce with the last sound of the singular form, as in the word *fox*, *es* is added. Thus, fox, *foxes*; church, *churches*; ash, *ashes*; bush, *bushes*.

An attempt to pronounce any of the words in the preceding paragraph by adding *s* to the singular form will at once show that *es*, which has the *z*-sound, is preferable to *s* as an ending.

The foregoing rules cover most cases for the formation of the plural, but some forms require further discussion.

Nouns Ending in Y.—The spelling of the plural forms of nouns ending in *y* follows the rules heretofore stated,—words ending in *y* preceded by a single consonant, change the *y* to *ie* and add *s*.

Formerly the spelling of such words as lady, glory, etc., was *ladie*, *glorie*, etc.; hence it may be said that these words form their plurals regularly by changing the *y* to *ie*, and adding *s*.

Nouns Ending in O.—Nouns ending in *o* preceded by a vowel add *s* only in forming their plurals; as, *cameo*, *cameos*; *folio*, *folios*.

Nouns ending in *o* preceded by a consonant usually add *es* in forming their plurals; as, *echo*, *echoes*; *negro*, *negroes*.

The following, however, are exceptions to the foregoing rule: The plural of *two* is written *twos*, and the following are usually written *cantos*, *halos*, *juntos*, *quartos*, *solos*, *tyros*, *duodecimos*, *octavos*, *pianos*, *mementos*, *lassos*, *provisos*.

Most nouns ending in *f* or *fe* are made plural by changing the *f* or *fe* to *ves*; as, *life*, *lives*; *loaf*, *loaves*.

The following nouns ending in *f* or *fe* form their plurals by adding *s*: *Brief*, *chief*, *dwarf*, *fife*, *grief*, *gulf*, *hoof*, *roof*, *proof*, *reproof*, *safe*, *scarf*, *surf*, *turf*, *strife*, *kerchief*, *mischief*, *handkerchief*.

Nouns ending in *ff* form their plurals regularly by adding *s*; as, *muff*, *muffs*; *staff*, *staffs*, except where *staff* means a cane, when the plural is written *staves* (pronounced stävz).

When other parts of speech are used as nouns, their plurals are formed according to Rule 1; as, "The *ins* and *outs* of office;" "The *ifs* and *buts* weakened his argument."

The plurals of figures, letters, and symbols are formed by annexing an apostrophe and the letter *s*; as, +, +'s; *, *'s; b, b's; 6, 6's. In such cases the apostrophe takes the place of an omitted letter, as in +es, 6es.

Plurals of Proper Nouns.—Proper nouns form their plurals regularly, by the addition of *s* or *es*; as, *Cæsar*, the twelve *Cæsars*; *Mary*, the two *Marys*; *Carolina*, the *Carolinas*; *Dervish*, *Dervishes*.

Some writers, however, use the forms the two *Maries*, the *Henries*.

Complex Proper Names.—In writing the plural forms of complex proper names, *s*, the plural sign, is added to the last word only; as, The *George Washingtons*, the *Sir Isaac Newtons*.

When a proper name is preceded by a title, the plural termination may be annexed to either the name or the title, or to both. The following are examples: "The *Miss Bertrams*."—*Sir Walter Scott*. "The *Miss Burtons*."—*Bulwer*. "The two *Miss Wellers*."—*Dickens*. "The *Miss Hornecks*."—*Irving*. "The *Misses Smith*."—*Bryant*. "The *Ladies Butler*."—*Swift*.

When a numeral or the title *Mrs.* precedes the proper

name, the name only is usually made plural; as, "The two Miss Scotts;" "The Mrs. Welbys;" "The two Miss Thompsons."

When the title belongs to several names, the title only is made plural; as, "Messrs. Green and Wilson;" "Messrs. Jones, Adams and Smith;" "Drs. Brown, Good, and Henderson."

When two titles equally prominent are used, both are made plural; as, "The Lords Commissioners North and Russell."

Proper names ending in the syllable *man*, not being compounds of the word *man*, form their plurals regularly by adding *s*; as, *Germans*, *Turcomans*, *Mussulmans*.

Plurals of Compound Nouns.—In compound nouns the part which names the object is made plural; as, schoolhouse, *schoolhouses*; tooth-brush, *tooth-brushes*; son-in-law, *sons-in-law*; pear-tree, *pear-trees*; hanger-on, *hangers-on*; major-general, *major-generals*; attorney-general, *attorneys-general*.

In such words as spoonful, cupful, cartful, cartload, the words *ful* and *load* name the object or quantity; hence the plurals are *spoonfuls*, *cupfuls*, *cartfuls*, *cartloads*, meaning one spoon, cup, or cart, full a number of times.

If more than one spoon or cup were meant, the plurals should be written *spoons full*, *cups full*, but not with a hyphen or as one word.

Compound Nouns from Foreign Languages form their plurals regularly by annexing the plural termination to the last term: as, *piano-fortes*, *ipse-dixits*, *scire facias*.

A few compound nouns have both names made plural; as, *men-servants*, *women-servants*, *ignes-fatui*.

Some writers add to their list of double plurals the word *knights-templars*, but there seems no good reason for

departing from the regular usage in the writing of this word, which is properly *knights-templar*, as given in "Mitchell's History of Freemasonry."

Foreign Nouns.—Some foreign nouns adopted into our language have two forms for the plural, an English and a foreign one. The following are some of the most familiar examples:

	<i>English Plural.</i>	<i>Foreign Plural.</i>
Bandit,	bandits,	banditti.
Beau,	beaus,	beaux.
Cherub,	cherubs,	cherubim.
Encomium,	encomiums,	encomia.
Focus,	focuses,	foci.
Fungus,	funguses,	fungi.
Gymnasium,	gymnasiums,	gymnasia.
Medium,	mediums,	media.
Seraph,	seraphs,	seraphim.
Stamen,	stamens,	stamina.

Most foreign names retain their original plurals, as in the following:

Alumnus,	alumni.	Genus,	genera.
Amanuensis,	amanuenses.	Hypothesis,	hypotheses.
Analysis,	analyses.	Larva,	larvæ.
Antithesis,	antitheses.	Madame,	mesdames.
Axis,	axes.	Monsieur,	messieurs.
Basis,	bases.	Nebula,	nebulae.
Crisis,	crises.	Oasis,	oases.
Criterion,	criteria.	Parenthesis,	parentheses.
Datum,	data.	Phenomenon,	phenomena.
Desideratum,	desiderata.	Radius,	radii.
Diæresis,	diæreses.	Stimulus,	stimuli.
Effluvium,	effluvia.	Stratum,	strata.
Ellipsis,	ellipses.	Terminus,	termini.
Emphasis,	emphases.	Thesis,	theses.
Erratum,	errata.	Vertebra,	vertebrae.

Abstract Nouns.—The names of metals, virtues, vices, arts, and sciences, and the names of things measured, have no plural form; as, *wisdom, gold, temperance, drawing, arithmetic, wheat, milk.*

When different kinds of the same substance are referred to they may be written in the plural form; as, *sugars, cloths, etc.*

The names of sciences ending in *ics*, as *mathematics, physics, optics, mechanics*, are in the singular number.

Alms (almesse), *news*, *molasses* are in the singular number.

Some nouns have no singular form. The following are examples: *Archives, ashes, bellows, billiards, bitters, cattle, clothes, compasses, goods, manners, measles, morals, nuptials, nippers, pincers, pantaloons, scissors, thanks, tongs, tidings, tweezers, trousers, shears, scales, vitals, wages.*

Some nouns are alike in form in both numbers; as, *deer, sheep, trout, salmon, vermin, apparatus, series, species, means, odds, pains* (efforts), *riches, etc.*

The number of nouns which have the same form in both numbers can be learned only by the meaning of the noun in the sentence.

The words *head, brace, pair, couple, dozen, score, hundred, etc.*, having the singular form, may be either singular or plural in meaning; but they may be written also with plural forms. When preceded by a numeral they take the singular form; as, *Four pair of gloves; Three brace of quail; Five dozen eggs.* At other times they take the plural form; as, “*They came in pairs;*” “*Hundreds of birds were in the meadow.*”

Two-form Plurals.—The following nouns have two forms for the plural, with different meanings:

Brother, *brothers* (of a family), *brethren* (of a society).

Cow, *cows* (two or more), *kine* (the kind).

Die, *dies* (stamps for coining), *dice* (cubes for gaming).

Fish, *fishes* (individuals), *fish* (species or quantity).

Genius, *geniuses* (men of genius), *genii* (spirits).

Index, *indexes* (tables of contents), *indices* (exponents).

Pea, *peas* (two or more), *pease* (kind or substance).

Penny, *pennies* (coins), *pence* (amount of value).

Odds is either singular or plural.

Pains (labor) is used as either singular or plural, but mostly in the singular; as, "No pains *is* taken."—*Pope*.
"Your pains *are* registered."—*Shakespeare*.

Means (instrument) is both singular and plural. We may say "By *this means*," or "By *these means*."

Oats is used almost wholly in the plural. The singular is usually expressed by "a grain of oats" rather than by "an oat."

Cannon, shot and shell are used in a collective sense; as, "Stormed at with *shot and shell*."

Youth and heathen have regular plurals; as, "A hundred youths."—*Dryden*. "The ancient heathens."—*Addison*. But both words are often used in a collective sense; as, "Why do the heathen rage?"—*Bible*.
"They hate us youth."—*Shakespeare*.

Trout, herring, shad, etc., are often used in a collective sense, and each word requires a verb in the plural; as, "The trout live in the brook." The word herring has also a plural form; as, "Myriads of herrings."—*Baird*.

Sail when it denotes a collection of ships is plural; as, "The fleet consisted of twenty *sail*."

Head is sometimes used in the plural; as, "Thirty thousand head of swine."—*Addison*.

In such expressions as "A three-cent piece," "A five-dollar bill," "A ten-foot pole," and the like, the word joined to the numeral by the hyphen loses its properties as a noun, and as a part of the adjective retains its

original form. An author humorously remarks that it would be quite as proper to speak of "they-goats" for the plural of "he-goat" as to speak of a *ten-feet* pole.

Fractions.—Since we speak of two-thirds, three-fifths, etc., it is best to read such fractions as $\frac{3}{21}$, $\frac{5}{35}$, three twenty-firsts, five thirty-fifths.

Collective Nouns.—The number of a collective noun is determined by the thought to be conveyed by the sentence in which it is used.

A collective noun conveying the idea of unity is in the singular number; as, "The army has left nothing in its track but a ruined country;" "The committee has read its report."

When the idea conveyed by a collective noun is that of plurality or has reference to the individuals included in the term, it is in the plural number, and both pronoun and verb agreeing with it should have the plural form; as, "The public are invited;" "The jury disagreed in their opinions;" "The committee were not unanimous in their decision."

In rare cases the collective noun in a sentence may be used in both numbers; as, "Each House shall keep a journal of *its* proceedings, and from time to time publish the same, excepting such parts as may in *their* judgment require secrecy."—*Constitution of the United States*.

The sentence from Irving, "There is a tribe in these mountains who are fairer and more intelligent than the other Indians," might probably be improved by substituting the words, "whose members are fairer," etc.

A possession or attribute common to several objects should be expressed in the singular. Thus, "We ought to be content with our *lot*;" "It is the duty of all to care for their health," not *healths*.

Some names of building material, as *brick, stone, plank,*

joist, are frequently used in a plural sense without the *s*, especially when referred to in quantity; as, "A pile of brick;" "A cartload of stone;" "A thousand feet of plank." When spoken of as individuals they may take the plural form; as, "Several bricks;" "A half dozen or more stones;" "Two planks;" "Some joists."

Whereabouts.—A common mistake, made especially by newspapers, is that of using *whereabouts* as a plural noun and making it the subject of a verb in the plural. Thus, one paper says, "His whereabouts *are* unknown," and another, "His whereabouts *have* not yet been discovered." These sentences are of course incorrect. *Whereabouts* means simply location or staying-place and is in the singular number.

GENDER.

Gender is the distinguishing of nouns with regard to sex. It has been argued by some that as there are but two sexes there should be but two genders. But sex and gender are not synonymous. Sex is an attribute of objects; gender is an attribute of language. Objects are either male, or female, or without sex. We therefore have the masculine gender, denoting the names of males; the feminine gender, denoting the names of females; and the neuter gender, denoting the names of such objects as have no sex. The use of these three genders covers the ground when the sex or the absence of sex is known; but there is a host of names of objects whose sex we do not know by the noun-form, and we therefore need another gender which may be applied to such words as *friends*, *parents*, *neighbors*, *children*, etc.; that is, a gender which is common to names including both sexes. In the sentence, "I expect some friends to visit me to-morrow," it might be incorrect to speak of *friends* as mascu-

line, because they might be women; it might be equally incorrect to speak of them as feminine, for they might be male friends; indeed, they might consist of both males and females. To attribute either *masculine* or *feminine* gender to the word *parents*, in which both sexes are represented, would be absurd. There is, therefore, a necessity for the *Common* gender, a term which is common or applicable to both sexes.

Some masculine nouns have no corresponding feminine; as, *printer, brewer, hostler, lawyer*. This is true probably because originally none of these occupations were pursued by women. For a similar reason, some feminine nouns, as *seamstress, laundress*, have no corresponding masculine form.

The tendency at present is to write the names of occupations in a common gender, without reference to sex. Thus, *editor* means a person that edits; there is no need of the word *editress*. We thus also write the word *painter* to represent either sex; also *teacher, poet, doctor, physician, guide*, and there seems to be no necessity for such words as *paintress, teacheress, poetess, doctress, physicianess*, or *guidess*.

Sometimes the names of animals are regarded as masculine or feminine, not because of their sex, but from their general characteristics. Thus, "The lion does not fear his enemy;" "The fox escaped from his pursuers;" "The dove coos softly in her nest;" "Every bee minds her own business."—*Addison*.

Such inanimate objects as are noted for firmness, power, boldness, etc., as *sun, war, anger*, are sometimes personified by the use of pronouns in the masculine gender. Thus, "The Sun rose in all his glory and power;" "Then Anger rushed, his eyes on fire."—*Colins*.

Such inanimate objects as are characterized by the feminine attributes of gentleness, beauty, etc., are personified by the use of pronouns in the feminine gender; as, "There lay the City before us in all her beauty;" "The Ship glides smoothly along in her course."

In writing of children or the lower animals, sex is usually disregarded, and the neuter form is used; as, "The little child prattled on till it fell asleep;" "The cat caught the bird and ate it."

A collective noun is regarded as neuter when the collection of objects is taken as a unit; as, "The army in its march destroyed much property."

When the objects indicated by a collective noun are considered separately, the gender must correspond to the sex of the individuals; as, "The jury could not agree in their (*masculine*) opinions."

CASE.

Case is that property* of nouns or pronouns which denotes their relation to other words.

In English there are three cases, the *Nominative*, the *Possessive*, and the *Objective*. Of these, the Nominative and the Objective of nouns have the same form. The Possessive has a special form to denote possession, the singular differing from the plural.

The Possessive singular of nouns is usually formed by annexing the apostrophe and the letter *s* ('s) to the nominative form; as, *man*, *man's*.

When the nominative plural does not end in *s* the possessive is formed in the same manner as the singular possessive; as, *men*, *men's*; *children*, *children's*.

When the nominative plural ends in *s*, the possessive plural is regularly formed by annexing the apostrophe only; as, *boys*, *boys'*; *ladies*, *ladies'*.

Inasmuch as the possessive sign always follows the full form of the nominative, a safe plan is to write the nominative form first, and then convert it to the possessive form by annexing the possessive sign. Thus, fly, *fly's*; flies, *flies'*; mouse, *mouse's*; mice, *mice's*; father-in-law, *father-in-law's*; fathers-in-law, *fathers-in-law's*.

When the form of the noun is the same in both numbers, the apostrophe may for the sake of distinction precede the *s* in the singular, and follow it in the plural; as, "A deer's hoofs," "Deers' hides for sale."

When the nominative form ends with the sound of *s* or *z*, the *s* of the possessive sign is sometimes omitted, especially if the next word begins with the sound of *s* or *z*; as, "For conscience' sake;" "James' slate."

In general, the regular possessive sign should be annexed unless the combination forms a disagreeable sound, as in the expression "Moses's laws."

The following seem particularly lacking in euphony: "Demosthenes's life."—*Blair*. "Some of Æschylus's and Euripides's plays."—*Blair*. "Confucius's system."

Care should be taken to place the possessive sign always at the end of a word.

The possessive sign (*'s*) is an abbreviation of the old English form *is* or *es*. Thus in Chaucer we find, "The kyngis crowne," "The knyghtes tale," "In widdowes habite."

SYNTAX OF NOUNS.

Of the use of the nominative form as subject of a sentence, little need be said. Mistakes are likely to occur only in answers to questions, as where one calls out, "Who is there?" and the answer is "Me;" or "Who brought the flowers?" "Me;" that is, "Me brought them."

The possessive case is the one in the use of which writers are most liable to err.

Compound words are formed sometimes of a possessive and the noun limited. In such cases, when the literal meaning is retained, the apostrophe is omitted, as in *ratsbane*, *tradesman*; but when the meaning is figurative rather than literal, the apostrophe is retained, as in *Job's-tears*, *wolf's-bane*, *hound's-tongue*,—names of plants.

When the compound term is used as an adjective the possessive sign is also retained; as, "A bird's-eye view;" "A camel's-hair shawl."

The possessive sign is used with nouns only, never with pronouns, to denote possession. *It's* is not the possessive case, but a contraction of *it is*.

In complex nouns the sign of the possessive should be affixed to the last word of the name; as, *Sir Walter Scott's* "Tales of a Grandfather;" *Henry Ward Beecher's* sermons.

When an adjective belonging to a noun in the possessive case follows the noun, the possessive sign is affixed to the adjective, so as to place the sign immediately before the modified noun; as, "This is somebody else's book."

The same principle applies in such expressions as "Edward the Third's reign." We could not possibly attach the possessive sign to the word Edward without destroying the sense of the expression. Such expressions as "Edward the Third" and "somebody else" are complex, and take the possessive sign only at the end of the expression.

Sometimes when the last word of a complex title is in the objective case, it is preferable to express the idea of possession by means of a preposition and its object rather than by the use of the possessive form. Thus,

the expression "The dominion of the Emperor of Germany" is a better expression than is "The Emperor of Germany's dominion."

Care must be taken when two or more connected nouns in the possessive denote joint ownership, to affix the possessive sign to the last noun only. Thus, "Ferdinand and Isabella's reign," meaning one reign; "Porter and Johnson's store," meaning one store belonging to the firm of Porter & Johnson.

When two or more connected nouns in the possessive case denote separate ownership, the possessive sign should be affixed to each noun. Thus, "Porter's and Johnson's store," meaning Porter's store and Johnson's store. The same thought may be expressed by placing the word *store* after the first noun; thus, *Porter's store and Johnson's*, when, it will be noticed, both possessive signs become necessary. The word *store* retains the singular form in either expression, because it is expressed after one of the nouns and understood after the other. If the word *store*, following either of these possessives, were written in the plural form, it would mean that each person had two or more stores. If the thought is to be expressed that Porter and Johnson own several stores in partnership, we should write the expression, *Porter and Johnson's stores*. In fact, a single ownership, whether by one person alone or by a number in partnership, requires a single possessive sign; separate ownerships, separate signs.

When a noun in the possessive case has one or more nouns in apposition, the sign is affixed to that only which immediately precedes the noun limited; as, "David the psalmist's reign;" "The work was Longfellow's, author of *Evangeline*." The word *work* is here understood after *Longfellow's*.

When a noun is put in apposition with a pronoun in the possessive case, the sign of the possessive may be omitted from the noun; as, "*His* success as a *teacher* is certain;" that is, *His* success as a *teacher's success* is certain.

When the possessive limits a participial noun or a participle used as a noun, the possessive form should be used in the limiting word. Thus, "Have you any objection to *my* listening?" "The objection to *your* speaking was plausible." "*Our* being present seemed to encourage the children."

The word limited by a possessive term is frequently omitted, especially in conversation; as, "We bought the books at Lippincott's;" that is, at Lippincott's store.

If the noun limited is not expressed, we may use either of two forms, "At Wilson the tailor's," or "At Wilson's, the tailor," the second expression taking a comma after the possessive sign to indicate an omission.

Though some writers place the possessive after the first of two nouns in apposition, as "We bought the goods at Smith's, the grocer," the best usage does not sanction the practice. The sign should be put after the second noun or after both. Thus, "We bought the goods at Smith the grocer's," or "We bought the goods at Smith's, the grocer's." The first of these expressions expanded means "at Smith the grocer's store," in which the possessive sign is placed at the end of the complex expression. The second expression means "at Smith's (store) the grocer's store." The first of these forms is preferable.

We should not write, "We bought the goods at the store of Mr. Smith's," but "at the store of Mr. Smith."

Frequently it is better to denote the idea of possession by a prepositional phrase rather than by the use of a possessive term. This is particularly true of nouns in the neuter gender. Thus, "The roof of the house" or "The roaring of the wind" is better than "The house's roof" or "The wind's roaring." It is true, we have such authorized expressions as "a day's labor," "a week's wages," "a ship's length," "the law's delay," and a few others, but when an expression is not already recognized as current English, it is best to denote possession by a prepositional phrase as in the case of neuter nouns.

Violations of the Correct Usage of the Possessive Sign.

Many reputable writers, through carelessness or otherwise, occasionally violate the rules of syntax.

The following are illustrations of incorrect usage of the possessive form:

Man only of a softer mold is made,
Not for his fellow's ruin, but *their* [his] aid.—*Dryden*.

All liars shall have their *parts* [part] in the burning lake.—*Watts*.

And *love's* [love] and friendship's finely pointed dart
Falls blunted from each indurated heart.—*Goldsmith*.

A collection of *writers* [writers'] faults.—*Swift*.

That is, as a reward of some exertion on our *parts* [part].—*Gurney's Evidences*.

Such was the occasion of Simon *Glover* [Glover's] presenting himself at the house of Henry Gow.—*Scott*.

He pointed out the difficulty of *counsel* [counsel's] doing public justice without preparation.—*Lord Campbell*.

There are all reasons for *suspicion* [suspicion's] falling on him.—*Dickens*.

Their *healths* [health] perhaps may be pretty well secured.—*Locke*.

THE NOMINATIVE CASE.

The *Nominative Case* is that which is generally used as the subject of a sentence.

The subject may consist of a noun or a pronoun, or any word, phrase, or clause, used as a noun.

A verb may have several subjects in a sentence; as, "David and Henry have come."

In some sentences the subject is not expressed. This is usually the case in commands; as, "Come;" "Strive to excel." In parsing such expressions the verb is said to agree with a noun or a pronoun understood.

The subject usually precedes the verb, but not always; it is sometimes placed after the verb or after an auxiliary; as, "Great is Diana;" "Why do you not come?" "Shall we reach the train in time?"

The subject of a finite verb should have the nominative form.

The subject of a verb in the infinitive mode takes the objective form. We may say, "I believe that *he is* honest," or "I believe *him to be* honest."

Violations of the Correct Usage of the Nominative Case.

He has dined here and *me* [I] with him.—*Jeffrey*.

He was by nature less ready than *her* [she].—*A. Trollope*.

She professed the greatest regard for the lady, *whom* [who], she assured us, was an angel.—*Scott*.

It is much easier to respect a man who has always had our respect than to respect a man *whom* [who] we know was last year no better than ourselves.—*Boswell*.

He offered his daughter in marriage to *whomsoever* [whosoever] might subdue the place.—*Irving*.

The very two individuals *whom* [who] he thought were far away.—*B. Disraeli*.

THE NOMINATIVE CASE INDEPENDENT.

The nominative form of a noun or a pronoun is used not only as the subject of a sentence, but also in what are known as the independent and the absolute construction.

A noun or a pronoun is said to be used *independently*—

1. When it represents a person or a thing addressed; as, “Boys, are you ready?” “Gentlemen, shall we have order?” “Dear Sir, I wish to see you.”

2. When it is used in exclamation; as, “Delightful task! to rear the tender thought;” “Great Goodness, I did not expect such a result!”

3. When by pleonasm the attention is directed to an object before anything is said of that object; as, “Thy rod and thy staff, they comfort me.”

Nouns or pronouns used in the three preceding ways are said to be in the nominative case independent by *address*, by *exclamation*, by *pleonasm*.

A noun or a pronoun is said to be used *absolutely*, or to be in the *nominative case absolute*—

1. When it is placed before a participle as the subject of an abridged clause; as, “The *teacher* having come, we began work.”

2. When it is used after an infinitive or a participle of a copulative verb, as part of an abridged proposition; as, “His being a reliable *man* was greatly to his advantage;” “To be a learned *man* was his ambition.”

Sometimes the nominative which should logically precede the participle is omitted; as, “Admitting your argument;” that is, “*We* admitting your argument.”

Sometimes also in the absolute construction, the participle is omitted; as, “The *war* at an end, the

soldiers returned ;” that is, “The war *being* at an end,” etc.

By some grammarians such expressions as the titles of books, the headings of chapters, the names on signs, etc., are considered as being in the nominative case independent by specification.

THE OBJECTIVE CASE.

There are two circumstances under which a noun or a pronoun may be in the objective case.

The first of these is where it represents the object of a transitive verb. The objective case may follow also the participle of a transitive verb.

A verb or a participle may have several objects ; as, “He teaches both *grammar* and *logic*.”

The object of a transitive verb may be any word, phrase, or clause, used as a noun ; as, “The boy likes *study* ;” “He likes *to study* ;” “He knows that *whoever studies will improve*.”

Some transitive verbs have two objects, one denoting some person or thing, and the other that which the object is made to be in fact or thought ; as, “They made him king ;” “They crowned him king.” Either of these sentences may be taken to mean, “They kinged him.” *Him* is the direct object, and *king* is the factitive object, by some grammarians called the complement.

Sentences of similar construction are, “They elected him President ;” “They chose Mr. Smith captain.” In each case the verb has the sense of *to make*, and the construction is called *factitive*, from *facio*, I make.

The principal verbs used in this construction are *choose*, *elect*, *make*, *appoint*, *name*, *call*, *constitute*, *render*, *consider*, *reckon*.

Some transitive verbs may be followed by two objects,

the first being the object of a preposition understood and the second the object of the verb; as, "I gave *John* some *money*." When the objects change places the preposition is expressed; as, "I gave some money to *John*."

The indirect object, or object of the preposition understood, is by some writers made the subject of a verb in the passive voice; as, "I was asked my opinion." The propriety of this usage is, however, questionable, and it ought to be avoided. A better form for such sentences is, "My opinion was asked." If the sentence be correct as given, there must be an ellipsis, the meaning being "I was asked (for) my opinion."

The Objective Case After a Preposition.—The objective case occurs after a preposition used to show the relation of the noun or other objective following, to some preceding word.

The objective case is used after the adjective *worth*, and sometimes after *like*, *near*, *nigh*, without a preposition expressed; as, "He is like his father;" "The book is worth a dollar." By some grammarians the object here is called an adverbial objective; others claim that a preposition is understood after the adjective.

When a noun or a pronoun is the object of two or more prepositions it should be made to follow the first preposition, and a pronoun representing it should be placed after the others. Thus, "He spoke in favor of, but voted against, the measure," should be "He spoke in favor of the measure, but voted against it."

The same principle holds good where a noun is used as the object of both a verb and a preposition. Thus, "He advocated and voted for the measure," should be "He advocated the measure and voted for it."

Whom and *which* should be made to follow rather than

precede the prepositions of which they are the objects. Thus, "To whom did you speak?" is better than "Whom did you speak to?"

The word *home*, and nouns denoting time, space, degree, amount, direction, as *years*, *feet*, *time*, etc., are put in the objective case without a preposition; as, "The wall is four feet high;" "We have walked several miles;" "You will not be a dollar richer by the change;" "I have lived here ten years." In each of these sentences a preposition is implied. Thus, "The wall was high *by* ten feet;" "We have walked (over the space or distance of) several miles;" "You will not be richer (by or to the value of) a dollar by the change."

Violations of the Correct Usage of the Objective Case.

The following illustrations show violations of the principles controlling the use of the objective form:

But first I must show *who* [whom] I mean by the government.—*Benton*.

To poor *we* [us] thine enmity is most capital.—*Shakespeare*.

He loves he knows not *who* [whom].—*Addison*.

Let him not boast that puts on his armor, but *he* [him] that takes it off.—*Barclay*.

John Horne Tooke was refused admission only because he had been in holy orders.—*Diversions of Purley*. (Admission was refused to John Horne Tooke, etc.)

Who [To whom] had been unexpectedly left a considerable sum.—*Dr. Johnson*.

He [him], who had always inspired in her a respect which almost overcame her affection, she now saw the object of open pleasantry.—*Miss Austen*.

Thackeray having been requested to write in a lady's album, found the following:

“Mont Blanc is the monarch of mountains—
 They crowned him long ago;
 But who they got to put it on
 Nobody seems to know.”

Whereupon Thackeray added the following:

A HUMBLE SUGGESTION.

I know that Albert wrote in a hurry;
 To criticise I scarce presume;
 But yet methinks that Lindley Murray,
 Instead of *who*, had written *whom*.

W. M. THACKERAY.

Wash ye, make *ye* [you] clean.—*Brown's Concordance*.

Hodgson's *Errors in English*, from which we take some of the foregoing, criticises the following:

God will send no such fools as I upon his errands.—*Kingsley*.

This sentence is correct as it stands, meaning “God will send no such fools as I (am) upon his errands.” The conjunction really connects sentences here instead of the words “fools” and “I.”

The following are examples showing the misuse of the prepositional objective:

All debts are cleared between you and *I* [me].—*Shakespeare*.

So you must ride on horseback after *we* [us].—*Couper*.

This life has joys for you and *I* [me],

And joys that riches ne'er can buy.—*Burns*.

He hath given away above half his fortune to the Lord knows *who* [whom].—*Fielding*.

I have plenty of victuals, and between you and *I* [me], something in a corner.—*Day's "Sunford and Merton."*

There are still a few who, like them and *I* [me], drink nothing but water.—*Gil Blas*.

We are still much at a loss *who* [whom] civil power belongs to.—*Locke*.

I cannot tell *who* [whom] to compare them to.—*Bunyan*.

That they should always bear certain marks *who* [whom] they came from.—*Butler's Analogy*.

It is in this particular that the great difference lies between the laborer who moves to Yorkshire and *he* [him] who moves to Canada.—*Westminster Review*.

Now he had lost her, he wanted her back; and perhaps every one present, except *he* [him], guessed why.—*Kingsley*, in "*Westward Ho*."

But if you can't help it, *who* [whom] do you complain of?—*Collier*.

I see there is some resemblance between this good man and *I* [me].—*Bunyan*.

THE CASE BY APPPOSITION.

When a noun or a pronoun is joined to another for the sake of explanation or emphasis it is in the same case as the noun which it explains or emphasizes.

This is usually called the same case by apposition.

As has been explained before, when several nouns come together to express but one name, as General Ulysses Simpson Grant, they constitute a complex noun, and are not in apposition.

Sometimes the common noun is put in apposition with the proper; as, "Milton the poet;" and sometimes the proper noun is put in apposition with the common; as, "The poet Milton."

Sometimes a noun is put in apposition with a sentence; as, "Always attend to business, a good rule, was his guiding motto;" and sometimes a sentence is put in apposition with a word; as, "His motto, Always pay as you go, is a good rule."

A plural term is sometimes for the sake of emphasis put in apposition with several nouns or pronouns preceding; as, "Children, relatives, friends,—*all* have deserted me."

Distributive pronouns are sometimes put in apposition with a plural noun or pronoun; as, "They called each other;" that is, "They each called the other," *each* being in apposition with *they*.

As is sometimes followed by a noun denoting office or rank, which is in apposition with a preceding noun or pronoun. Thus, "*His* work as a *teacher* is satisfactory," in which *teacher* is in the possessive case, being in apposition with *his*.

Nouns in apposition need to agree in case, but not necessarily in person, number, or gender.

When a noun is in apposition with a pronoun in the possessive, the possessive sign of the noun is omitted. See the foregoing sentence, "His work as a *teacher* is satisfactory."

Violations of the Rule for the Same Case by Apposition.

Mrs. Brownlow had presumed to scold her, to blame her, for what she was doing, *she* [her] whom nobody ever blamed.—*Mrs. Oliphant*.

God forbid that John Hawkins's wife should refuse her last penny to a distinguished mariner, and *he* [him] a gentleman born.—*Kingsley*.

Amidst the tumult of the routed train
The sons of false Antimachus were slain;
He [him], who for bribes his faithless counsel sold,
And voted Helen's stay for Paris' gold.—*Pope*.

I saw him before me, *he* [him] who had since our first meeting continually contrived to pass some inappreciable slight on me.—*Lever*.

It is characteristic of them to appear to one person, and *he* [him] the most interested, the most likely to be deluded.—*W. J. Fox: Works*.

I don't forget the danger and the woe of one weak woman, and *she* [her] the daughter of a man who stood in this room.—*Kingsley*.

To send me away, and for a whole year, too,—*I* [me] who had never crept from under the parental wing—was a startling idea.—*C. J. Mathews.*

The word came not to Esau, the hunter that stayed not at home, but to Jacob, the plain man, *he* [him] that dwelt in tents.—*Penn.*

Christ and *him* [he] crucified was the Alpha and Omega of his address.—*Sermon.*

SAME CASE AFTER A VERB.

Intransitive verbs and verbs in the passive voice have the same case after them as before them when both words mean the same thing.

The verbs usually placed between two nouns or pronouns meaning the same thing are *be*, *become*, *seem*, *appear*, and intransitive verbs of *motion*, *place*, or *position*; also the passive form of such transitive verbs as *call*, *choose*, *name*, *elect*, *appoint*, *consider*, *esteem*, *constitute*, and a few others.

A noun or a pronoun either preceding or following one of these verbs may be in the same case as a phrase or a clause separated from it by the verb. Thus, “It is a disgrace *that we should be compelled to remain*,” or “*That we should be compelled to remain* is a disgrace.” In the first of these sentences, the meaning may be expressed by transferring the explanatory clause and putting it directly in apposition with the subject; as, “It, that we should be compelled to remain, is a disgrace.”

The noun or the pronoun following an intransitive infinitive, and meaning the same thing as the noun or the pronoun preceding the verb, is usually in the objective case, since the word preceding the verb, and known as the subject of the infinitive, is in the objective case. Thus, “I took *him* to be the judge.”

Some writers have agreed that the sentence “It is

me" is correct, because it is common. This is not true. It is a direct violation of the rule, nor is the expression common among correct writers. If "It is me" were correct, then also would "It is him," "It is her," "It is them" be correct; but they all violate the well-established principle that intransitive verbs have the same case after them as before them when both words mean the same.

The noun or the pronoun after a passive or an intransitive participle limited by a possessive is in the nominative case independent; as, "No one thought of its being *I*."

In such expressions as "He was taught grammar" there is an ellipsis of a preposition, as will appear when we substitute the word "instruct" for the word "taught." Thus, "He was instructed *in* grammar."

The subject and the predicate noun or pronoun need agree in nothing except case. Thus, we may say "It is I," "It is he," "It is she," "It is you," "It is they."

Those who would admit the correctness of "It is me," as Dean Alford does in "The Queen's English," and quote Shakespeare as authority, in King Lear, where the fool's expression is "And yet I would not be *thee*, uncle," will on further examination of the same play find Shakespeare saying "Be as well-neighbored, pitied, and relieved as thou;" "'Tis *they* have put him on the old man's death;" "It is both *he* and *she*;" "'Tis *he*;" "'Twas *he*;" "Alack, 'tis *he*;" "O, this is *he*." Shall the rule or the exception govern?

In practice, it matters not which of the nouns precedes or which follows if both are in the same case. Sometimes both follow or both precede the verb. Thus, "Am I a Jew?" "Art thou Elias?" "I was eyes to the blind, and feet was I to the lame." "I know not who she is."

Violations of the Rule for the Same Case after the Verb.

He had taken Oliver to be *he* [him].—*Dickens*.

If there is any one embarrassed it will not be *me* [I], and it will not be she.—*W. Black*.

It cannot be *me* [I].—*Swift*.

These are her garb, not *her* [she].—*Hannah More*.

Although I know it to be *he* [him].—*Dickens*.

It is not *me* [I] you are in love with.—*Adam Smith*.

Art thou proud yet? Ay, that I am, not *thee* [thou].—*Shakespeare*.

Time was when none could cry, "It was *me*" [I].—*Dryden*.

NOTES ON NOUNS.

Some discussion has arisen as to whether we shall say "the United States is" or "the United States are." Bryant in his famous *Index Expurgatorius*, which determined the question of usage for "The New York Evening Post," of which he was editor, used the term in the plural. The Secretaries of State before the late Civil War used the expression in the same way. Many authorities have advocated the opposite view, and usage is still unsettled. A reasonable view seems to be that where the General Government is meant, or where the term expresses the name of the nation, we should consider the term singular, and say "The United States is," as we would say "Central America is," or as we would say of any other country made up of individual states. If we were to refer to the states as individuals, we should say "the United States are," but a doubt might arise as to the propriety of beginning either "united" or "states" with a capital letter.

Foreign Nouns.—Frequently the plurals of foreign nouns are incorrectly formed. The word naming the graduate of an institution of learning is a good exam-

ple. The following are the proper forms: The term applied to a male graduate is *alumnus* (sing.), *alumni* (plur.); to a female graduate, *alumna* (sing.), *alumnae* (plur.); and where an association consists of both sexes, the proper term is "*alumni* association."

It is best in general to use the Anglicised plural of foreign terms where they have become words in common use. Thus, *animalcules* is preferable to *animalculæ* except in scientific treatises, *solos* to *solī*, *ignoramus* to *ignorami*, *funguses* to *fungi*, *stamens* to *stamina*, *gymnasiums* to *gymnasia*, *focus* to *foci*, *beaus* to *beaux*, and *encomiums* to *encomia*.

The general tendency in writing the names of professions and other callings is to abandon the use of the feminine termination where women occupy the same plane and enjoy the same privileges as men; hence we have for women as well as men, *doctor*, *teacher*, *poet*, *editor*, *instructor*, *merchant*, and the like; but when the calling is essentially one belonging to the sex, a termination which indicates the sex is given to the word; as, *actress*, *countess*, *duchess*, and the like. In the case of *actress* the reason for using the forms *actor* and *actress* is probably because the parts played by the two sexes are different.

As a rule, in forming new nouns it is best to take the affix from the same language as the root-word. This is sometimes known as "The law of verbal formation." Thus, in the word *telegraph*, we have *tele* (Gr.), "afar off," and *graphein* (Gr.), "to write," and the word *telegraph*, as also the word *telegram*, is a legitimate word; but the word *cablegram* is a hybrid derived from the French and the Greek.

The suffix *ist*, from the Greek, is frequently affixed incorrectly to an Anglo-Saxon root, producing as a result such monstrous hybrids as *walkist*, *talkist*, *fightist*,

and timist. Many of these have dropped out, and we have walker, talker, and the like, but "timist" is still used by some to denote one who keeps correct time in his musical performances. The proper word is time-keeper, from *timnian* (A. S.) and *ceopan* (A. S.).

Many abbreviations of nouns have crept into modern usage, some good, some bad. Thus we have, among the forms which have secured recognition, *van* for "van-guard," *cab* for "cabriolet," *consols* for "consolidated annuities," *mob* for "*mobile vulgus*," *proxy* for "procuracy," *chum* for "chamber-fellow," *hack* for "hackney-coach." But there is no known excuse for the use of "co-ed" for female student at a co-educational school, "exam" for examination, "gym" for gymnasium, "pants" for pantaloons, "pard" for partner, "prex" for president, "gents" for gentlemen, "prof" for professor, "spec" for speculation, "prelim" for preliminary examination, or "bike" for bicycle.

Many of these abbreviations are the product of the playground, where they are thought to savor of smartness, but none of them should be used unless recognized by reliable authority as having established themselves.

ADJECTIVES.

Adjectives are used to limit or qualify the meaning of nouns and pronouns.

Two adjectives taken together as one term, without the use of a hyphen, may be called a complex adjective; as, "A *pale blue* sky;" "*One hundred and twenty* dollars,"

Numerals below one hundred, when taken together, are united by a hyphen; as, *thirty-two*, *sixty-three*, *ninety-six*.

An adjective may modify a noun modified by another

adjective; thus, "A little girl;" "A beautiful little girl." In the second example, "beautiful" modifies the expression "little girl."

When an adjective precedes an expression in which a possessive limits another noun, the adjective limits the noun in the possessive rather than the noun limited by the possessive. Thus, in the expression, "The old man's coat was torn," *the* and *old* modify *man's*.

An adjective usually precedes the noun but follows the pronoun which it modifies; thus, "He is a wise man;" "He is wise." There are, however, many exceptions to this principle, as in the expression "The boy is active."

When an adjective is used abstractly after a participle or a verb in the infinitive mode, as "To be prudent is sometimes difficult," it does not relate to any noun or pronoun.

Some adjectives merely limit; as, *this*, *that*, *six*; while others qualify.

Among the limiting adjectives are the articles, *a*, *an* and *the*, numeral adjectives, and pronominal adjectives.

Of the articles, *a* and *an* always limit nouns in the singular; *a* being used before consonant sounds and *an* before vowel sounds. An attempt to pronounce a combination where *a* precedes a vowel sound, as "a apple," "a orange," will readily show why it is more euphonious to use *an* before vowel sounds. Similarly, an attempt to pronounce *an* before a consonant sound, as "an cart," "an book," will show why it is more euphonious to use *a* before the sound of a consonant.

The may be used before either singular or plural nouns.

Of the numeral adjectives, those relating to number, there are three kinds: the *Cardinals*, which denote how many, as *one*, *two*, *three*, etc.; the *Ordinals*, which denote

what order, as *first, second, third*, etc.; and the *Multipliative*, which denote how many fold, as *double* or *twofold*, *triple* or *threefold*, etc.

Pronominal adjectives are those which may, without the use of the article, represent a noun when understood. The pronominal adjectives are either *Distributive*, as *each, every, either, neither*,—*Demonstrative*, as *this, that, these, those, yonder, former, latter*,—or *Indefinite*, as *some, one, any, such, none, other, another*.

In the case of pronominal adjectives, when they limit a noun expressed they may be called simply adjectives. When the noun is understood, as in "*This* is mine," the pronominal adjective may be called a pronoun.

Words derived from proper names, as *American, Polish, Roman*, etc., are known as *Proper Adjectives*. Proper adjectives should begin with capital letters except as noted heretofore in the treatment of Capital Letters.

In the comparison of adjectives, when two objects are compared, strict usage requires the employing of the comparative degree to express a greater or a less degree of quality; as, *wiser, gentler, more beautiful, less savage*.

In the comparison of three or more objects the superlative degree is required to express the highest or the lowest degree of quality; as, *wisest, most beautiful, least savage*.

Monosyllables, and dissyllables ending in *le* or *y*, are compared by the use of *er* and *est*; as, *simple, simpler, simplest; spicy, spicier, spiciest*.

Other adjectives are usually compared by the use of *more* and *most* or *less* and *least*; as, *beautiful, more beautiful, most beautiful; dangerous, less dangerous, least dangerous*.

Many adjectives are compared irregularly; as, *good, better, best; evil, worse, worst*.

Some adjectives, as *superior*, *inferior*, *preferable*, *previous*, do not admit of comparison. This is true also of adjectives denoting qualities which cannot exist in different degrees; as, *round*, *square*, *perpendicular*, etc., though some writers use the comparative and the superlative forms of these words on the theory that the words are not used in a strict sense. Thus,

“The most perfect society.”—*Everett*.

“Sight is the most perfect of our senses.”—*Addison*.

“The extremest verge.”—*Shakespeare*.

SYNTAX OF ADJECTIVES.

When a limiting and a qualifying adjective modify the same noun, the limiting adjective is placed first; as, “This excellent advice;” “The three brightest boys.”

When two numeral adjectives are thrown together, the ordinal should generally precede the cardinal; thus, “The first three;” “The last six.”

Some grammarians object to this form because the “first three” implies a “second three,” and in groups of less than six there can be no second three. This is not necessarily true. While there may not be a “first three” and a “second three” in five, there may be a “first three” and a “last three,” just as in competition we speak always of “the best three out of five,” and not the “three best” out of five.

When an ordinal adjective limits a noun it should precede the noun; as, the *fifth* page, the *thirteenth* lesson, the *second* month, the *eighth* day.

When a cardinal adjective limits a noun it should follow the noun; as, *page five*, *lesson thirteen*, *post sixteen*, *part one*, not “part first.”

Adjectives as well as nouns may have the factitive construction, as in the following: “They made the land

rich;" that is, "They *enriched* the land;" "They washed their hands clean;" that is, "They *cleansed* their hands." It will be noticed that the predicate verb and the factitive adjective are together equivalent to a single verb.

When the passive form of the verb is used, as, "The land was made rich," the adjective becomes a predicate adjective.

The comparative degree presents the objects compared as in different classes or divisions, and is followed by *than*; as, "Boys are more rugged than girls."

The superlative degree presents the objects compared as being in the same class or division, and is followed by *of*. Thus, "Samson was the strongest of men." We may say "Solomon was the wisest of Hebrew kings," but not "Solomon was wiser than any of the Hebrew kings," for he himself was one of the Hebrew kings. We may say "Eve was the fairest of women," but not "the fairest of her daughters Eve," as given by Milton.

When only two objects of the same division are compared the comparative may be used like the superlative, and is followed by *of*; as, "Henry is the older of the two brothers."

Some writers have used the superlative in the comparison of two. Notice the following:

"The most agreeable of the two."—*Cowper*.

"The most fatigued of the two."—*Hood*.

"The strongest of the two."—*Hawthorne*.

"Which of the two was the most active?"—*G. P. Marsh*.

"The least of the two."—*Southey*.

"The eldest of the two sons."—*Thackeray*.

"Wherever God erects a house of prayer,
The devil always builds a chapel there;
And 'twill be found, upon examination,
The latter has the largest congregation."—*Defoe*.

Double comparatives and double superlatives should not be used. When Shakespeare wrote the expression, "the most unkindest cut of all," he probably was aware that he was sacrificing the grammar of the sentence to make the meter correct.

Each, Every, Either, and Neither are in the singular, and require verbs, nouns, and pronouns connected with them to be in the singular.

Even when two or more singular subjects are connected by *and*, if they are preceded by *each*, *every*, or *no*, they are considered separately, and require a verb in the singular; as, "Each tree and each shrub has its assigned place;" "Every boy and every girl was ready for the work;" "No chair and no cushion was out of place."

When an adjective is necessarily plural the noun which it limits must take the plural form; as, six *feet*, ten *miles*, seventy *dollars*; but when the adjective and the noun together form a new adjective the noun-part of the adjective retains the singular form; as, "a ten-foot pole," "a two-foot rule," "a three-cent piece," "a five-dollar bill."

When quality is to be expressed, the adjective and not the adverb should follow the verb. Thus, "I feel *sick*;" "I feel *bad*;" "Eggs boil *hard*;" "The three stood *tall* and *silent*,"—*Macaulay*; "Many a nobleman lies *stark* and *stiff*,"—*Shakespeare*; "Time hangs *heavy* in the hall,"—*Scott*.

A correct plan for determining whether the adjective or the adverb should be used in such sentences as the foregoing is this: If any part of the verb *be* or *become* can be substituted for the verb in the sentence, the verb should be followed by the adjective. Thus, "I feel (am) wicked;" "I feel (am) bad;" "She looks (is) beautiful;" "The eggs boil (become) hard;" "The apples taste (are)

sweet;" "The marble looks (is) cold;" "He felt (was) better;" "The child lay (was) motionless."

When several adjectives limiting the same noun follow one another and are separated by a conjunction, the simplest is placed first. Thus, we say, "The boy whom we met is older and more intelligent than his brothers." If written in this form, "The boy whom we met is more intelligent and older than his brothers," the word *more*, in effect, modifies not only *intelligent*, but also *older*; thus, "more intelligent and more older."

Care must be taken, when two adjectives limiting the same noun are joined without the use of a conjunction, that that adjective be placed nearest the noun which with the noun may be modified by the other. Thus, "A rugged little church" rather than "A little rugged church;" "A pretty little girl" rather than "A little pretty girl."

In referring to distance *farther* should be used, not *further*. Thus, "The sun is farther from us than is the moon."

Further is used in the sense of *additional*. Thus, "Have you any further remarks to make?"

The best authorities seem to agree that *each other* should be used when reference is made to two only, and that *one another* is the proper term to use when reference is made to more than two. Thus, "The boys like each other;" that is, each boy likes the other. The number is limited definitely to two. We may say also, "The soldiers followed one another;" that is, one followed another, the number being indefinite.

This and its plural **these** refer to what is near or last thought of. **That** and its plural **those** refer to what is distant or last thought of. Thus,

Farewell my friends! farewell my foes!

My peace with these [foes], my love with those [friends].

This and **that** modify words in the singular; **these** and **those**, words in the plural. It is incorrect to say *these kind* or *those sort*.

The words **a** and **the**, though generally used as articles, may be used as other parts of speech. Thus, when *a* is used as a substitute for *at*, *on*, *in*, or other prepositions, as "He has gone a-fishing," it becomes a preposition. So also in sentences where *the* is used to modify an adjective or an adverb, it is properly an adverb, as in "*The more* I sing *the better* I like it;" "*The deeper* the well, *the cooler* the water."

When the article *a* is used before the words *dozen*, *few*, *hundred*, etc., the combination of article and adjective, as *a few*, may be parsed as a complex adjective. Some grammarians prefer to think that a preposition is understood; as, "A dozen (of) eggs." When millions and larger numbers are used the preposition is expressed; as, "Two millions of dollars."

SYNTAX OF ARTICLES.

When a common noun is used in its most extended sense, no article is placed before it; as, "Iron is hard;" "Glass is brittle."

No article is placed before a noun denoting a mere title or name used as a name. Thus, "The chief officer in some towns is called mayor; in others, burgess;" "His title is captain."

The article should be placed before an adjective used as a noun; as, "None but the brave deserves the fair."

The article should be used before a common noun when the latter is used to denote a particular class; as, "The rose is a beautiful flower."

When several particulars are included in a class, the article must precede each of the particulars if it is

placed before any. Thus, "Nouns have three cases,—Nominative, Possessive and Objective," or "Nouns have three cases,—the Nominative, the Possessive, and the Objective."

The article *a* is used before the words *few* and *little* to denote *some*. Thus, "A few remained to greet the stranger;" "We have a little money."

The article *a* is omitted before these adjectives to denote *none*, *not many*, or *not much*. Thus, "Few were present to listen to the address;" "But little change has been noticed."

The article is used before each of two names when they are compared if they refer to separate persons or things; as, "The house is more costly than the barn."

The article is omitted before the second of two names compared if they refer to the same person or thing; as, "Longfellow was a more celebrated writer than speaker."

When several nouns have different constructions, or when it is desired to express direct contrast, or to give emphasis or prominence to each noun, the article should be placed before each. Thus, "The teacher and the pupils were frightened;" "The street but not the number was given;" "Twenty thousand dollars was paid for a store and a farm."

When several adjectives in succession limit the same noun, an article is placed before the first only; as, "A red, white, and black cow," meaning one cow.

When several adjectives in succession limit a noun denoting several objects of the same name, the article is placed before each adjective; as, "A red and a white cow," meaning two cows of different colors.

Applying this principle to the following sentences,

- a.* Sing the first and second stanza,
- b.* Sing the first and the second stanza,
- c.* Sing the first and second stanzas,
- d.* Sing the first and the second stanzas,

it is evident that only the second sentence (*b*) is correct.

With reference to the first sentence, the single article indicates a single stanza, but a stanza cannot be first and second at the same time. The same is true of the third sentence; the stanzas must be first and second at the same time.

The fourth sentence means that the first stanzas shall be sung and the second stanzas shall be sung, whereas there is but one of each. The fourth sentence could be correct only on the supposition that the first stanza of each of several hymns was to be sung.

The second sentence is correct in either of the following forms:

- Sing the first and the second stanza.
- Sing the first stanza and the second.

A prominent writer on Grammar says we may say, "the north pole and the south pole, or the north and the south poles." The latter form is incorrect. In the expression "a red and a white cow," the word "cow" is understood after the adjective "red." So also in the expression "the north and the south poles," the word poles is understood after the word north, as indicated by the presence of the article, and therefore the expression means "the north poles and the south poles," an indefinite number of each.

There is objection also to the statement of a late writer who argues that we may say, "the first and second editions of a book," which means editions that are at the same time both first and second.

In the expressions,

The old and new book,
The old and the new book,
The old and new books,
The old and the new books,

the first and the third are incorrect, and the others correct.

The proper expression for the books of Scripture is, "The Old and the New Testament."

The guiding principle in determining the use of the article in such sentences as the foregoing is, that where several adjectives in succession modify a noun which refers to as many distinct objects as there are adjectives, the article must be placed before each adjective, if the noun is omitted after each except the last; thus, "The first, the second, and the third stanza," means three stanzas. Notice also that the singular form of the noun, stanza, is the correct one, because it is understood after each of the adjectives where it is omitted.

When the adjectives limiting a noun denote but one object, the article occurs but once, and that before the first adjective; as, "A white and black [spotted] dog."

In general, as many objects or groups of objects are suggested in expressions like the foregoing as there are articles. Thus, "A red, a white, and a blue flag" (three articles, three flags). "A red, white, and blue flag" (one article, one flag). Thus, also, "The first and second stanza" (one article, one stanza). But a stanza cannot be first and second at the same time, therefore the expression is incorrect. The proper form is "The first and the second stanza" (two articles, two stanzas).

Sometimes for the sake of emphasis or through poetic license, a writer departs from the rule ; as,

“A sadder and a wiser man
He rose the morrow morn.”—*Coleridge*.

Where other limiting words are used with the adjective, the same principle applies. Thus, “His first and last will” means one will. “His first and his last will” (not wills) means two wills.

As to the words naming streets, usage is not uniform. Shall we say “Eleventh and Chestnut Streets,” “Eleventh Street and Chestnut Street,” or “Eleventh Street and Chestnut?”

This does not really come under the principle stated. *Street* is not the noun modified by the words *eleventh*, etc. The real names of the streets are *Eleventh Street* and *Chestnut Street*, just as the name is not *Delaware* but *Delaware Bay*. Two words, *Chestnut* and *Street*, are necessary to form the complete proper name. Custom seems to sanction *Eleventh and Chestnut Streets*, but the form *Eleventh Street and Chestnut* also is used, and the form “*Chestnut Street below Tenth*” seems to have no exceptions. Where a street crosses an avenue both the words *street* and *avenue* are used ; thus, “*Broad Street and Columbia Avenue*.”

The definite article is usually placed before such complimentary titles as *reverend* and *honorable* ; as, “The Reverend Phillips Brooks ;” “The Honorable William E. Gladstone.” We may say also “The Reverend Mr. Brooks,” and “The Honorable Mr. Gladstone.”

Butler’s Grammar claims that *of* should not be inserted between *both* or *all* and a noun following, but that it may be inserted between *both* or *all* and a pronoun following. Thus, we say, “Both the boys” and

"All the men," or "Both of them," "All of them." The use of the noun without the preposition is preferable.

The adjective *some* may be written before numerals to render the number less definite; as, "Some twenty years ago, Tom."

Usage seems to differ with regard to the use of *a* or *an* before words beginning with *h*. All agree, however, that before words beginning with *h* and accented on the first syllable, *a* is the proper article to use; as, "A history;" "A horseman." When the accent is on the second syllable, in such words as *historical*, either *a* or *an* may be used, according to the taste of the writer. Some grammarians declare that the article in such cases must be *an*; as, "An historical account," "An hotel," and yet few people would speak of "an hotel." Usage is decidedly in favor of the form "a hotel," and divided as to "a historical" or "an historical."

Pronominal Adjectives.—*Every* is sometimes used to limit a numeral adjective and a noun taken together; as, "Every ten days;" "Every five dollars."

None may be used in either the singular or the plural; as, "We waited for a car, but none came;" "The train was wrecked and none of the passengers escaped."

Every means all considered separately, and requires a verb or a pronoun in the singular; as, "Every good boy is ready to do his duty."

Each means all considered separately, and requires a verb or a pronoun in the singular; as, "Each girl is ready to do her share of the work."

Any denotes an indefinite object as opposed to a particular one or more; as, "Can any one do this?" "Have you any money?"

Either means one or the other of two, but not both. It implies a choice; as, "Take either of the books."

Neither means not the one nor the other.

Many when followed by *a* may be considered a complex adjective. It means much the same as *every*, but does not denote *all*.

All and **whole** mean much the same, but they are not interchangeable. We may say "All the world" or "The whole world," and we may say "All the apples," but not "The whole apples," in the same sense.

Fewer and **less** are sometimes misapplied. *Fewer* refers to number, and *less* to size. The school officer who said to the teacher, "There are less girls than boys in your school," probably told the truth, but it did not express the thought he meant to convey, that there were fewer girls than boys in the school.

Violations of the Correct Usage of Adjectives.

Isabella was the cause of more misery in both countries than any (other) woman who ever lived.—*History of France*.

Neither of them *are* [is] remarkable for precision.—*Blair*.

Neither of which *are* [is] taken into account.—*Dean Alford*.

Mazzini may be said to have done more for the unity of Italy than any (other) living man.—*Spectator*.

The word party for *a man* occurs in Shakespeare.—*Dean Alford*. (Drop *a*.)

The two sisters were extremely different, though each had *their* [her] admirers.—*Scott*.

Never did a set of rascals travel *further* [farther] to find a gallows.—*W. Irving*.

A proper fraction is less than one, because it expresses *less* [fewer] parts than it takes to make a unit.—*D. P. Colburn*.

We may consider the whole space of *an* [a] hundred years as present.—*Beattie*.

Which created a great dispute between the young and (the) old men.—*Goldsmith*.

It was read by the high and the low, by the rich and (the) illiterate.—*Dr. Johnson*.

So difficult is it to separate these two things from *one another* [each other].—*Blair's Rhetoric*.

They stand now on one foot, then on *another* [the other].—*Walker's Particles*.

The head of it would be *an* [a] universal monarch.—*Butler's Analogy*.

Scripture, *n.*, appropriately and by way of distinction, the books of the Old and (the) New Testament, the Bible.—*Dictionary*.

In two separate volumes, entitled the Old and (the) New Testament.—*Wayland*.

The creed of Zoroaster . . . supposes the co-existence of a benevolent and (a) malevolent principle, which contend together without *either* [either's] being able decisively to prevail over his antagonist.—*Sir Walter Scott*.

Here they confound the material and (the) formal object of faith.—*Maturin's Sermons*.

Mr. Stanley was the only one of his predecessors who slaughtered the natives of the region he passed through.—*London Examiner*. (Omit "of his predecessors.")

A close prisoner in a room twenty *foot* [feet] square.—*Locke*.

A Philosophical Inquiry into the Origin of our Ideas of the Sublime and (the) Beautiful.—*Burke*.

There are no *less* [fewer] than five words with any of which the sentence might have terminated.—*Campbell's Rhetoric*.

The letters published after C. Lamb's death and that of his sister, by Mr. Talfourd, make up a volume of more interest than any (other) books of human composition.—*Leslie*.

To the antiquary and (the) artist those columns are a source of inexhaustible observations and designs.—*Byron*.

Her two brothers were one after *another* [the other] turned into stone.—*Art of Thinking*.

Memory and forecaste just returns engage,

This [that] pointing back to youth, *that* [this] on to age.—*Pope*.

For beast and bird ;

These [those] to their grassy couch, *those* [these] to their nests repair.—*Milton*.

The landlord was thought to see *further* [farther] and deeper into things than any (other) man in the parish.—*Fielding*.

PRONOUNS.

A pronoun may represent a noun or any phrase or clause used as a noun.

A pronoun agrees with its antecedent in person, number and gender; but the case is determined by the relation of the pronoun to other words in the sentence.

The pronoun *thou* is now rarely used except in the solemn style. *You* is used instead in both the singular and the plural, but the verb which agrees with it is always of the plural form.

Some difficulty is experienced in expression because the language has no singular pronoun in the third person to represent males and females. When both sexes are represented, the masculine form, *he*, is used by common consent; as, "*He* that hath ears to hear, let *him* hear."

Some of the personal pronouns have two forms for the possessive, one of which, *my*, *our*, *thy*, *your*, *her*, *their*, is used when the noun is expressed; as, *my* book, *her* pencil; and the other, *mine*, *ours*, *thine*, *yours*, *hers*, *theirs*, when the noun is understood or implied; as, The book is *mine*; The pencil is *hers*.

In parsing this latter form the simplest plan is to call the word a personal pronoun, having the possessive form, and then determine the case by the use of the word in the sentence. Thus, in the sentence, "The book is mine," *mine* is a personal pronoun, having the possessive form. It is in the first person, singular number, and in the nominative case after *is*. The word *mine* here means *my book*.

Care must be taken never to write the possessive form of pronouns with an apostrophe.

SYNTAX OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

When the antecedent of a personal pronoun is a collective noun conveying the idea of unity, the pronoun agrees with it in the third person, singular number, neuter gender. Thus, "The army marched onward in *its* course."

When the antecedent is a collective noun conveying the idea of plurality, the pronoun agrees with it in the plural number, the gender corresponding to that of the individuals in the collection; as, "The jury did not agree in *their* opinions."

When a pronoun is used to represent two or more nouns connected by *and*, but meaning different things, the plural form must be used; as, "Both the boy and the girl spoke to *their* father."

When a pronoun is used to represent two or more nouns in the singular, connected by *and*, and meaning the same thing, the singular form of the pronoun must be used; as, "Our teacher and protector has *her* home in the village."

When two or more nouns in the singular, connected by *and*, are preceded by *each*, *every*, or *no*, the pronoun which represents them is in the singular number; as, "Every bush and every tree is putting forth *its* leaves."

When two or more nouns in the singular, connected by *or* or *nor*, are represented by a pronoun, it agrees with them separately in the singular number. Thus, "Neither Henry nor William has found *his* book."

When two or more nouns of different numbers are connected by *or* or *nor*, the pronoun should be made plural, and the plural noun should be placed nearest to it. Thus, "Neither the teacher nor the pupils felt that *they* had cause to regret *their* action."

When two or more nouns are connected by *as well as*, *and also*, *but not*, or similar connectives, they belong to different propositions, and the pronoun represents the first noun only. Thus, "The boy as well as his father believed that *he* would succeed."

When two or more antecedents, connected by *and*, are of different persons, the pronoun which represents them is of the first person if either of the antecedents is of the first person. Thus, "William and I are anxious to please *our* friends."

If none of the antecedents is of the first person, the pronoun is of the second person; as, "You and your brother must be kind to *your* sisters."

When using the pronoun of the second person, singular, the same form must be preserved throughout. Thus, "Thou and thy sons shall bear the burden of *thy* sins."

When several personal pronouns in the singular number are used together, the second person is placed before the others, and the third is placed before the first. Thus, "You and I," "He and I," "You and he."

When several personal pronouns in the plural number are used together, *we* is usually placed first, *you* second, and *they* third; thus, "We and you," "We and they," "You and they."

When the use of a pronoun causes ambiguity, the noun should be repeated. Thus, the sentence, "The farmer told his neighbor that his cows were in his corn," may mean four things,—

- a. The farmer's cows were in the farmer's corn.
- b. The farmer's cows were in his neighbor's corn.
- c. The neighbor's cows were in the farmer's corn.
- d. The neighbor's cows were in the neighbor's corn.

We, though plural, is sometimes used by editors and

others to denote but one. *Our* is used in the same way. Thus, "*We* give this as *our* opinion."

You is often used to denote but one; but the verb agreeing with it must have the plural form.

When neuter nouns are personified they are represented by pronouns in the masculine or the feminine gender. Thus, "Grim Darkness furls *his* leaden shroud."

Such collectives as *dozen*, *many*, *few*, *score*, preceded by *a*, are represented by pronouns in the plural; as, "A few of them were present."

Antecedents in the singular number but of different persons cannot be represented by a single pronoun. A separate pronoun must be used to represent each antecedent. Thus, "The boy found his pencil, but his sister did not find hers."

Violations in the Usage of Pronouns.

Every one in the family should know *their* [his] duty.—*Penn.*

His form had not yet lost all *her* [its] original brightness.—*Milton.*

I shall not learn my duty from such as *thee* [thou].—*Fielding.*

But he must be stronger than *thee* [thou].—*Southey.*

No one will answer as if I were *their* [his] friend or companion.—*Steele, in Spectator.*

She was no better bred nor wiser than you or *me* [I].—*Thackeray.*

If the part deserve any comment, every considering Christian will make it *themselves* [himself] as *they* go [he goes].—*Defoe.*

Now these systems, so far from having any tendency to make men better, have manifest tendency to make *him* [them] worse.—*Wayland.*

Every nation *have* *their* [has its] refinement.—*Sterne.*

Neither gave vent to *their* [his] feelings in words.—*Scott.*

Everybody will become of use in *their* [his] own fittest way.—*Ruskin.*

The tongue is like a race-horse, which runs the faster the less weight *it* [he] carries.—*Addison*.

Nobody knows what it is to lose a friend till *they have* [he has] lost one.—*Fielding*.

I do not mean that I think any one to blame for taking care of *their* [his] health.—*Addison*.

“Rose Satterly, the mayor’s daughter?”—“That’s *her*” [she].—*Fielding*.

RELATIVE AND INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

A **Relative Pronoun** is one which relates to a preceding word, phrase, or clause, called its antecedent, and unites with it a subordinate clause.

The relative pronouns are *who*, *which*, *what*, and *that*. Some grammarians consider *as* a relative pronoun when it follows *such*, *same*, or *many*; as, “We give you such as we have.” Others claim that there is an ellipsis in such expressions, the relative pronoun being understood, the foregoing sentence meaning, “We give you such as (those are which) we have.”

Who is used to represent persons, *which* to represent inferior animals and things without life, *what* to represent things, and *that* to represent both persons and things.

What, *that*, and *which* have the same form in the nominative as in the objective case.

In many sentences *what* is equivalent to both the antecedent and the relative; as in—

a. That is what I saw.

b. He bought what he wanted.

In parsing *what*, a form something like the following is the simplest: In the first sentence, “*What* is a relative pronoun having a double construction. It is in the nominative case after *is*, and in the objective case after *saw*.”

Three of the words used as relative pronouns, *who*, *which*, *what*, are used also as Interrogative Pronouns.

Interrogative pronouns are used to ask questions.

The possessive form of *who* and *which* is *whose*. *What* and *that* have no possessive form.

SYNTAX OF RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

The relative pronoun *who* is sometimes applied to the names of animals when these are personified; as, "The fox, *who* now addressed the assembly," etc.

Which was formerly used in referring to persons; as, "Our Father, *which* art in heaven," but the question is pertinent as to this expression, the opening of the Lord's Prayer, May not the use of *which* here arise from the thought that the petitioner was addressing the Lord not as a person but as a pure spirit?

A clause introduced by a relative pronoun is said to be restrictive when it limits or restricts the meaning of its antecedent word as would be done by an adjective. Thus, "The man *who is industrious* will succeed;" that is, "The *industrious* man will succeed."

Notice the difference in the force of the relative clauses in the following:

a. "My brother that is studying law will be examined in June." (*Restrictive.*)

b. "My brother, who has been spending the summer with us, will return to the city soon." (*Non-restrictive.*)

In sentence *b*, the subordinate clause "who has been spending the summer with us," may be stricken out without changing the meaning of the main clause, but this cannot be done with a restrictive clause.

Relative pronouns which are used apparently in answer to questions, as "Who spoke?"—"I do not know *who* spoke," are known as *Responsive Relative Pronouns*.

The relative pronoun should be placed near its antecedent to avoid ambiguity.

When a relative pronoun represents a collective noun denoting unity, *which* is used; as, "The school, *which* convened at nine, has been dismissed."

When a proper name is used merely as a word, it is represented by *which*; thus, "Washington, a name *which* is dear to every American."

What should not be used instead of the conjunction *that*; as, "We do not know but *what* [that] he may come."

Whom and *which* generally follow the preposition by which they are governed; *that* always precedes both the verb and the preposition. Thus, "To whom did he speak?" "Here is the boy that I spoke to."

That is frequently used instead of *who* or *which*. The following are the most important cases:

a. After *who* used interrogatively; as, "Who that has seen his work is not pleased?"

b. After an adjective or an adverb in the superlative degree; as, "This is the best that we could get."

c. When reference is made to antecedents which separately are represented by *who* and *which*; as, "Both the horse and the rider that we saw fell off the bridge."

d. After the adjectives *same*, *very*, and *every*, when the relative clause is restrictive; as, "This is the same man that called yesterday."

e. After the pronoun *it* used indefinitely; as, "It was not I alone that was careless."

f. After *all* and similar antecedents when the limiting clause is restrictive; as, "All *that are studious* will improve."

By many writers and speakers the last of these rules is not strictly observed. Thus, while it is certainly cor-

rect to say "All that are interested will remain," the form "All who are interested will remain" is sanctioned by custom at least.

A change of relatives referring to the same antecedent should be avoided. The following is incorrect: "This is the same person *that* called, and *whom* we met in the city."

Violations of the Correct Usage of Relative Pronouns.

Who [whom] have we here?—*Goldsmith*.

Our party of seventeen, the largest *which* [that] ever entered the valley.—*Richardson*.

Massillon is perhaps the most eloquent writer of sermons *which* [that] modern times have produced.—*Blair*.

Who [whom] should I meet the other day but my old friend?—*Steele*.

The princes and states *who* [that] had neglected or favored the growth of this power.—*Bolingbroke*.

The army *whom* [which] the chief had abandoned, pursued meanwhile *their* [its] miserable march.—*Lockhart's Napoleon*.

Both minister and magistrate are compelled to choose between *his* [their] duty and (their) reputation.—*Junius*.

The first American *who* [that] adopted literature as a calling, and *who* [that] successfully relied on his pen for support, etc.—*A History of Literature*.

This is just as if an eye or a foot should demand a salary for *their* [its] service to the body.—*Collier's Antoninus*.

When you press a watch or pull a clock, *they answer* [it answers] your question with precision, for *they report* [it reports] exactly the hour of the day, and *tell* [tells] you neither more nor less than you desire to know.—*Bolingbroke*.

Valancourt was the hero of one of the most famous romances *which* [that] *was* [were] published in this country.—*Thackeray*.

Not the Mogul, or Czar of Muscovy,

Nor [or] Prester John, or Chan of Tartary,

Are [is] in *their houses* [his house] monarch more than I.

—*King: British Poets*.

Bryant was the first American *who* [that] discovered that the flowers and birds of New England were not those of Old England.—*A History of Literature*.

The same might as well be said of Virgil, or any (other) great author, whose general character will infallibly raise many casual additions to *their* [his] reputation.—*Pope*.

The crisis is one of the most singular *which* [that] have ever occurred.—*Economist*.

All the virtues of mankind are to be counted upon a few fingers, but *his* [its] follies and vices are innumerable.—*Swift*.

Undoubtedly he was the most powerful speaker, the most active minister, the truest man, *which* [that] the kirk has had since Chalmers' death.—*W. C. Smith, in Theological Review*.

REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS.

Dr. Morris, in *English Accidence*, shows that formerly the simple personal pronouns might be used reflexively, as in Shakespeare's *Merchant of Venice*, "I do repent me," the addition of the syllable *self* only rendering their reflective signification more emphatic. *Self* was an adjective, meaning *same*, but afterward it became a noun. Ben Jonson uses the phrase "my woeful self."

The use of *myself*, *yourself*, etc., for *I*, *your*, etc., is not sanctioned by good authority. Thus, "Myself did it," is not regarded as good English, because the word *myself* here loses its reflective character and becomes the simple subject.

Violations of the Correct Usage of Compound Personal Pronouns.

I saw that it was impossible that Sir Lionel Somers and *myself* [I] should ever get on well together as man and wife.—*Kingsley*.

Jerrold, Mr. Herbert Ingram, Mr. Peter Cunningham, and *myself* [I] were out for a day's ramble.—*Dr. Charles Mackay*.

Mr. Studer and *myself* [I] had already decided on taking one man apiece as a personal attendant.—*Prof. P. Forbes.*

Parliament, *yourself* [you] and many other independent members, were unwillingly, etc.—*Benj. Disraeli.*

The reader will be indebted for any interest he may find in these pages as much to my correspondents as *myself* [to me].—*Public School Report.*

In October, George and *myself* [I] went to spend a week or ten days at Hampton Court.—*Mrs. Grote: Life of George Grote.*

VERBS.

The chief division of verbs is into transitive and intransitive, the former of which may be followed by a noun or a pronoun in the objective case, and the latter not.

A *transitive* verb expresses action, and this action is such as either literally or figuratively passes from the actor to a receiver of the act.

A transitive verb requires an object to complete its meaning. Thus, "He makes" is not complete in sense until some noun or pronoun in the objective case is made to follow; as, "He makes wagons." *Makes* is therefore a transitive verb.

When the sense is complete without the use of an object, the verb is intransitive; thus, the verb *bake* in the sentence, "She can bake," though in the sentence "She can bake bread," the same verb, *bake*, is transitive.

An intransitive verb that does not express action is known as a *Neuter Verb*; as, *is, are, was, etc.*

An intransitive verb may be used transitively when followed by a word of similar meaning; as, "I dreamed, a dream;" "She lived a wretched life."

An intransitive verb may also be used transitively

when it has a causative meaning; as, "The boy flies his kite" (causes it to fly); "The engineer runs his engine."

A verb may be transitive with one meaning and intransitive with another. Thus, "I will return the books" (trans.); "We will return to the city" (intrans.).

VOICE.

Transitive verbs are said to have **voice**, a property which shows whether the subject of the sentence represents the actor or the thing acted upon; as, "The boy shot a bird;" "A bird was shot by the boy." The first form, where the subject represents the actor, is known as the *Active Voice*, and the second as the *Passive Voice*. The verbs in these sentences, *shot* and *was shot*, are the same verb in two forms, either showing that the action passes from one object, *boy*, to another, *bird*.

Intransitive verbs may, when followed by a preposition, take the form of the passive voice; as, "We *were laughed at*" (ridiculed). In such sentences the verb, including the preposition, is a complex verb.

Sometimes transitive verbs have the active form with a passive meaning; as,

- a. Some goods *sell* readily.
- b. The field *ploughs* well.

MODE.

Mode is the manner in which an assertion is expressed. Most grammarians give five modes of the verb,—*Indicative*, *Potential*, *Subjunctive*, *Imperative*, and *Infinitive*.

Some reject the potential, and others seem inclined to reject the subjunctive.

Hodgson, in his *Errors in the Use of English*, says, "The mood in the use of which mistakes are commonest, is the subjunctive, a mood that as a separate inflection is dying out in the language, the tendency being to merge the distinction between it and the indicative."

The subjunctive mode is used to express an assertion as doubtful or conditional.

The distinction between the indicative and the subjunctive is usually carefully observed by correct writers. Thus,

- a. If it rains (now), let us remain indoors.
- b. If it rain to-morrow, we cannot go.

The first of these sentences admits of no doubt. It either rains or it does not rain, and the fact that we know is implied in the indicative form, "If it rains." But in the second sentence we are in doubt, unable to tell whether it will or will not rain to-morrow, and therefore express our doubt in the subjunctive form, "If it rain."

Sometimes the sign of the subjunctive is omitted; as, "Were I in his place;" that is, "If I were in his place."

The conjunctions mostly used to introduce the subjunctive form are *unless, if, though, lest, except, provided*; but these conjunctions, or at least a part of them, may be used with the indicative form. For a verb to be in the subjunctive mode, the essential thing is that it express doubt, or a future contingency or condition.

Errors in the Use of Modes.

We shall be disgusted if he *gives* [give] us too much.—*Blair*.

If thou *findest* [find] any kernelwort in the marshy meadow, bring it me.—*Neef's Methods of Teaching*.

What is it to thee, if he neglect thy urn,

Or without spices *lets* [let] thy body burn?—*Dryden*.

A certain lady whom I could name if it *was* [were] necessary.—*Spectator*.

Human works are of no significancy till they *be* [are] completed.—*Kames*.

Though perspicuity *be* [is] more properly a rhetorical than a grammatical quality, I thought it better to include it in this book.—*Campbell's Rhetoric*.

Although the efficient cause *be* [is] obscure, the final cause of those sensations lies open.—*Blair*.

Our disgust lessens gradually till it *vanish* [vanishes] altogether.—*Kames: Elements of Criticism*.

It ought to weigh heavily on a man's conscience if he *have* [has] been the cause of another's deviating from sincerity.—*W. J. Fox: Works*.

Enough has been done, I trust, to satisfy them that if Keble was a scholar, a divine, a remarkably gifted poet, if he *were* [was] exemplary as a friend, a brother, son, and husband, so he was admirable in the discharge of his duties as a parish priest.—*Sir J. T. Coleridge*.

If the cavern into which they entered *were* [was] of artificial construction, considerable pains had been taken to make it look natural.—*W. Black*.

If I *am* [be] in the City at that time, I will do all I can to prevent the desecration of the Sabbath.—*Newspaper*.

TENSE.

Tense is said to denote the time of an action or event. The indicative mode has six tenses: three absolute,—the *Present*, the *Past*, and the *Future*; and three relative,—the *Present Perfect*, the *Past Perfect*, and the *Future Perfect*.

The indicative mode is the only one in which the tenses indicate time accurately.

The Present and the Present Perfect tense both refer to present time. The former represents an act as taking place at the present time; as, "I write," while the Pres-

ent Perfect represents an act as completed during present time; as, "I have written to-day." The present perfect tense of the indicative mode has for its sign the word *have*; as, "have sung;" "have seen."

The Present Tense, in addition to denoting present time, may express a general truth; as, "Cold freezes water."

It may also express a habit or a custom; as, "The boy is diligent;" "We think constantly."

It may also represent the past or the future as present; as, "Columbus crosses the ocean and discovers a new world;" "I see the era of prosperity as it dawns upon us."

The Past Tense denotes what took place in past time; as, "We sang;" "We were singing."

It also expresses what was customary; as, "They always were very agreeable."

The Past Perfect Tense denotes an action or an event as complete before some past time; as, "The meeting had convened before we arrived;" that is, we arrived in past time, but the convening of the meeting, also in past time, had taken place before our arrival.

The sign of the past perfect tense in the indicative mode is *had*; as, "had gone;" "had sung."

The Future Tense denotes future time; as, "We shall come;" "They will pay us a visit."

The sign of the future tense is *shall* or *will*.

In promises, *will* is used in the first person, and *shall* in the second and the third; as, "I will go;" "He shall go."

To denote futurity or prediction, *shall* is used in the first person, and *will* in the second and the third; as, "We shall be there;" "Will you be there?"

The Future Perfect Tense denotes an act completed

before some future time; as, "The train will have gone before we reach the station;" that is, we shall reach the station in future time, but the going of the train will be an act completed before our reaching the station.

The sign of the future perfect tense is *will have* or *shall have*. Thus, "The snow will have melted before spring comes;" "We shall have completed the work before the close of the week."

There are many errors made in connection with the past perfect and the future perfect tense, especially in ordinary conversation.

Goold Brown gives the following sentence from Blair as an impropriety for correction: "I had written before I received his letter." The sentence is correct.

Errors in the Use of Tenses.

It was observed by Newton that the diamond *possessed* [possesses] a very high refractive power compared with its density.—*Haven*.

It always *was* [has been] my opinion that we would succeed finally.—*Newspaper*.

As we remember to have heard an acute and learned judge profess his ignorance of what an articulator *was* [is], we may explain, etc.—*Westminster Review*.

He insisted that the Constitution *was* [is] certain and fixed, and *contained* [contains] the permanent will of the people, and *was* [is] the supreme law, and *could* [can] be revoked only by the authority that made it.—*Kent*.

It *was* [is] a pity I was the only child; for my mother had fondness of heart enough to have spoiled a dozen.—*Irving*.

Arts *were* [had been] of late introduced among them.—*Blair*.

The wittiness of the passage *was* [had been] already illustrated.—*Campbell's Rhetoric*.

They *have done* [did] anciently a great deal of hurt.—*Bolingbroke*.

I observed that love *constituted* [constitutes] the whole moral character of God.—*Dwight*.

Two young gentlemen, who have made a discovery that there *was* [is] no God.—*Swift*.

SYNTAX OF VERBS.

A finite verb agrees with its subject in number and person.

Though the pronouns *we* and *you* are frequently used to represent a single person, the verbs used with them must agree with them in the plural form.

When *it*, used indefinitely, is the subject of a sentence, the verb agrees with it in the third person, singular number, but the verb may be followed by a nominative differing from the subject in either person or number, or both; as, "*It* was either *you* or *they* that called to me."

When the subject of a sentence is a phrase or a clause, the verb agrees with it in the third person, singular number; as, "To know great and good men is a pleasure."

The finite verb never agrees with a noun in the first or the second person, but with a pronoun representing it. Thus, "I, James Smith, do hereby depose;" "Boys, you deserve much praise."

The number of a verb having for its subject a noun whose form is the same in both numbers, is determined by the meaning of the sentence. Thus, "A sheep was sold;" "Some sheep were sold."

When a verb has several subjects of different persons, it agrees with the first person rather than the second, and with the second rather than the third. Thus, "You and I will go;" "He and you came;" "He and I will go."

When two or more subjects in the singular number, connected by *and*, follow the verb, it is sometimes used

in its singular form ; as, "Thine is the kingdom, and the power, and the glory." In expressions like this the speaker seems to fix his attention on each subject separately.

In the expressions *as follows*, *as appears*, etc., a subject seems to be understood ; thus, "As (it) follows ;" "As (it) appears."

A verb in the imperative mode agrees with a subject, *thou, ye, you*, understood.

In such sentences as "Let there be light," the expression is used without reference to a subject, but the verb is still in the imperative mode.

Subjects, Collective Nouns.—When the subject of a sentence is a collective noun conveying the idea of unity, the verb agrees with it in the singular number. Thus, "The army *has changed* its course."

When the subject of a sentence is a collective noun conveying the idea of plurality, the verb agrees with it in the plural number. Thus, "The public *are invited* ;" "The committee *do not agree* in their suggestions."

Errors in the Use of Verbs having Collective Nouns for Subjects.

Far the greater part of their captives *was* [were] anciently sacrificed.—*Robertson's America*.

The greater part of these new-coined [? newly-coined] words *has* [have] been rejected.—*Horne Tooke*.

While all our youth *prefers* [prefer] her to the rest.—*Waller's Poems*.

While still the busy world *is* [are] treading o'er

The paths they trod five thousand years before. — *Young*.

So that the whole number of the streets *were* [was] fifty.—*Rollin's Ancient History*.

The number of inhabitants *were* [was] not more than four millions.—*Smollett*.

The House of Commons *were* [was] of small weight.—*Hunt*.
Small as the number of inhabitants *are* [is], yet their poverty is extreme.—*Payne's Geology*.

The number of school districts *have* [has] increased during the year.—*School Report*.

In France the peasantry *goes* [go] barefoot, and the middle sort *makes* [make] use of wooden shoes.—*Harvey*.

Above [? more than] one-half of them *was* [were] cut off before the return of spring.—*Robertson's America*.

Subjects Connected by And or As well as.—A verb having two or more subjects denoting different persons or things taken together, agrees with them in the plural number; as, "Father and mother are here."

A verb having two or more singular subjects connected by *and*, but referring to the same person or thing, is in the singular number. Thus, "The great orator and statesman, Webster, *was* a senator."

When two or more subjects in the singular number are preceded by *each*, *every*, or *no*, the verb agrees with them in the singular number. Thus, "Every man, woman, and child *was* attentive."

When two subjects in the singular number, connected by *and*, are emphatically distinguished, they belong to different propositions, and the verb expressed agrees with the first only, the predicate of the second being understood. Thus, "Their pleasure, and not the welfare of the people, *was* their chief consideration."

When the verb separates the subjects, it agrees with that which precedes it; as, "Thy beauty walks, thy tenderness and love."

When two subjects are connected by *and*, one of which is affirmative and the other negative, they belong to different propositions, and the verb agrees with the affirmative subject, and is understood with the other. Thus,

“Our character, and not our profession, *recommends* us;”
 “Not a loud voice, but strong proofs, *bring* conviction.”

When two subjects are connected by *as well as*, *but*, *save*, *also*, *but not*, they belong to different propositions, and the verb agrees with the first, being understood with the others. Thus, “Prudence, as well as right, dictates that a man should be just.”

Every verb except those in the infinitive or the imperative mode should have a subject expressed, unless several verbs have the same construction. Thus, “He knows his duty but will not do it,” should be “He knows his duty but he will not do it.”

Two or more distinct subject phrases connected by *and* require a plural verb. Thus, “To do our duty to the public and to be just to ourselves *are* sometimes difficult.”

Errors in the Use of Verbs.

Hill and dale *doth* [do] boast thy blessing.—*Milton*.

Common sense, as well as piety, *tell* [tells] us these are proper.—*Commentary*.

Therein *consists* [consist] the force and use and nature of language.—*Berkeley*.

How *is* [are] the gender and (the) number of a relative known?—*Bullions*.

The syntax and (the) etymology of the language *is* [are] thus spread before the learner.—*Bullions*.

How each of these professions *are* [is] crowded!—*Addison*.

Both death and I *am* [are] found eternal.—*Milton*.

The boldness, freedom, and variety of our blank verse *is* [are] infinitely more favorable than rhyme to all kinds of poetry.—*Blair's Rhetoric*.

When the force and direction of personal satire *is* [are] no longer understood.—*Junius*.

In consequence of this idea much ridicule and censure *has* [have] been thrown upon Milton.—*Blair*.

Consequently, wherever space and time *is* [are] found, there God must also be.—*Sir Isaac Newton*.

For where *does* [do] beauty and high wit

But in yon constellation meet?—*Butler's Hudibras*.

Thence to the land where *flows* [flow] Ganges and Indus.—*Milton*.

High rides the sun, thick rolls the dust,

And feebler *speeds* [speed] the blow and thrust.—*Sir W. Scott*.

By which an oath and (a) penalty *was* [were] to be imposed upon the members.—*Junius*.

There *is* [are] also the fear and (the) apprehension of it.—*Butler's Analogy*.

Bitter constraint and sad occasion dear

Compels [compel] me to disturb your seasons due.

—*Milton's Lycidas*.

But it, as well as the lines immediately subsequent, *defy* [defies] all translation.—*Coleridge*.

But their religion, as well as their customs and manners, *were* [was] strangely misapprehended.—*Bolingbroke*.

But his jealous policy, as well as the fatal antipathy of Fonseca, *were* [was] conspicuous.—*Robertson's America*.

By that time every window and every door on the street *were* [was] full of heads.—*Newspaper*.

Subjects Connected by Or or Nor.—When two or more subjects in the singular number are connected by *or* or *nor*, the verb agrees with them in the singular. Thus, "Neither parent nor child was saved."

When one of the subjects connected by *or* or *nor* is in the plural number, it is placed nearest the verb, and the verb is made plural. Thus, "Neither the teacher nor the pupils were present."

When the verb has two or more subjects of different persons, connected by *or* or *nor*, it agrees in person with the one nearest to it. Thus, "Neither he nor I am willing;" "Neither Henry nor you are ready."

Errors in the Use of Verbs.

No monstrous height, or length, or breadth *appear* [appears].
—*Pope*.

Nor want nor cold his course *delay* [delays].—*Johnson*.

Neither the intellect nor the heart *are* [is] capable of being driven.—*Abbott*.

Nor he nor I *are* [am] capable of harboring a thought against your peace.—*Walpole*.

By which he, or his deputy, *were* [was] authorized to cut down any trees in Whittlebury forest.—*Junius*.

A lucky anecdote, or an enlivening talk, *relieve* [relieves] the folio page.—*Isaac Disraeli*.

Yet sometimes we have seen that wine, or chance, *have* [has] warmed cold brains.—*Dryden*.

A rusty nail, or a crooked pin, *shoot* [shoots] up into prodigies (? a prodigy).—*Spectator*.

Neither history nor tradition *furnish* [furnishes] such information.—*Robertson*.

Praise from a friend or censure from a foe,

Are [is] lost on hearers that our merits know.—*Pope*.

Neither Charles nor his brother *were* [was] qualified to support such a system.—*Junius*.

When, therefore, neither the liveliness of representation, nor the warmth of passion, *serve* [serves], as it were, to cover the trespass, it is not safe to leave the beaten track.—*Campbell's Rhetoric*.

Neither the general situation of our colonies, nor that particular distress which forced the inhabitants of Boston to take up arms, *have* [has] been thought worthy of a moment's consideration.—*Junius*.

Surely none of our readers are so unfortunate as not to know some man or woman who *carry* [carries] this atmosphere of peace and good will about *them* [?].—*Kingsley*.

No action or institution can be salutary and stable which *are* [is] not based on reason and the will of God.—*Matthew Arnold*.

Neither his conduct nor his language *have* [has] left me with that impression.—*Lord Houghton*.

The excommunication of the Stock Exchange is far more terrible than the interdict of the Pope or the ban of Empire ever *were* [was].—*Prof. Rogers*.

The Subject, with Modifiers.—A modifier of the subject of a sentence does not affect the form of the verb. Thus, “The number of visitors *increases* daily;” “Three months’ interest *is* due.”

When the subject is a relative pronoun, the verb takes its number from the antecedent. Thus, “The new auditorium is one of the finest buildings that ever *have* been erected in the City.”

Errors in the Use of Verbs.

The ninth book of Livy affords one of the most beautiful exemplifications of historical painting that is [are] anywhere to be met with.—*Blair*.

The idea of such a collection of men as *make* [makes] an army.—*Locke*.

How beauty is excelled by manly grace

And wisdom, which alone *is* [are] truly fair.—*Milton*.

What art thou, speak, that on designs unknown,

While others sleep, thus *range* [rangest] the camp alone?

—*Pope*.

The rapidity of his movements *were* [was] beyond example.—*Wells’ History*.

The mechanism of clocks and watches *were* [was] totally unknown.—*Hume*.

And each of these *afford* [affords] employment.—*Percival’s Tales*.

The judicial power of these courts *extend* [extends] to all cases in law and equity.—*School History*.

This is one of the very best treatises on money and coins that *has* [have] ever been published.—*J. R. McCullough*.

I confess that I am one who *am* [is] unable to refuse *my* [his] assent to the conclusions of those philosophers who assert that nothing exists as it is perceived.—*P. B. Shelley*.

Cardinal Wiseman has taken advantage of the attack to put forth one of the most brilliant appeals that *has* [have] appeared in my time.—*Miss Mitford: Yesterdays with Authors.*

Whenever Don Guzman replied with one of those smiles of his, which (as Aymas said afterward) *was* [were] so abominably like a sneer, that he had often hard work to keep his hands off the man.—*Kingsley.*

Nominatives to be Expressed.—Every finite verb not in the imperative mode should have a separate nominative expressed except when the verb is repeated for the sake of emphasis, or is connected with another verb in the same construction, or is put after *but* or *than*.

Subjects Improperly Omitted.

There is no man (who) would be more welcome.—*Steele.*

There is no man (who) doth a wrong for wrong's sake.—*Lord Bacon.*

The web of the natural and (that of) the supernatural are so woven together in the soul that they cannot be untied.—*John Duncan, I.L.D.*

Who is here so base that (he) would be a bondsman.—*Beauties of Shakespeare.*

Mr. Prince has a genius (that) would prompt him to better things.—*Spectator.*

Between an antecedent and a consequent, or what goes before, and (what) immediately follows.—*Blair's Rhetoric.*

All the various miseries of life, which people bring upon themselves by negligence and folly, and (which) might have been avoided by proper care, are instances of this.—*Butler's Analogy.*

Will martial flames forever fire thy mind,

And (thou) never, never to Heaven be resigned?—*Pope.*

Discrepant Subjects.—Sometimes in compound sentences a single predicate is used in connection with two or more subjects; as, "Not a *drum* was heard nor a funeral *note*."

This construction is admissible only where the subjects are in the same number, otherwise the rule for the agreement of a verb with its subject is violated, as in the following: "They are easily avoided, and their existence () forgotten."

Verbs Improperly Omitted.

The civil government was then very submissive, and heretics () almost unknown.—*Lecky*.

His beard was white, his face () pale and melancholy, his eyes () lustrous.—*Miss M. B. Edwards*.

His diet was abstemious, his prayers () long and fervent, and the alms which he received with one hand he distributed with the other.—*Gibbon*.

The evening was made pleasant with sacred music, and the fatigues of two long services () repaired by simple refectations.—*Holmes*.

Massinger is a decided Whig; Beaumont and Fletcher () high-flying, passive-obedience Tories.—*Leslie Stephen*.

He belongs to one caste, and the hewers of wood and drawers of water () to another.—*W. J. Fox*.

The oddity has become always odder, the paradoxes () still more paradoxical.—*Lowell*.

His brow was wrinkled, his lips () compressed, his eyes () full of a terribly strong calm.—*Kingsley*.

Still was her inward structure unchanged, her essential duties were unvaried, her course () pursued with equal success.—*Cardinal Wiseman*.

At present all contributions of facts are to be welcomed, all hasty theorizing (is to be) encouraged.—*Spectator*.

They were spreading his reputation, and every day () bringing new friends.—*J. T. McClennan, in Memoirs of Thomas Drummond*.

Not only was the watch discovered, but duplicates () [also] found.—*Traits of Character*.

Public opinion is a reality as solid to him as the globe, its phenomena () as influential as sunshine and darkness.—*W. R. Alger*.

But the young doctor came, and the old doctor came, and the infants were laid in cotton-wool, and the room () heated up to keep them warm, and bay-teaspoonfuls of milk () given them.—*Holmes*.

These tracts were always kept lighted, and the expense thereof () defrayed by a special tax.—*The Coming Race*.

The offenses against morality are condoned too easily, and the line between vice and virtue () drawn in accordance with certain distinctions which even Parson Adams could scarcely have approved.—*Leslie Stephen*.

The Subject Limited by Adjectives.—When a subject is limited by two or more adjectives, it is in the plural if each adjective is preceded by an article, but in the singular if there is but one article used. Thus, "The logical and the historical analysis *coincide*." (There are two analyses.) "The figurative or metaphorical expression *has* a different meaning from the literal." *Figurative* and *metaphorical* take but one article because they limit a noun in the singular, which in turn takes a verb in the singular as its predicate.

Errors in the Number of the Predicate Verb.

The moody and savage state of mind of the sullen and ambitious *are* [is] admirably drawn.—*Spectator*.

The material and (the) mental world have their points of union, blending them together.—*W. J. Fox*.

NOTE.—Dr. Hodgson would have this read "The material and the mental worlds have," etc. This would mean "The material worlds and the mental worlds," which is incorrect. The word *world* is understood after the word *material* in the expression, but the article *the* should precede *mental*, to show that two worlds are meant.

The expression "Vocal and instrumental music now

invariably *form* a considerable part of the programme," which Dr. Hodgson condemns, is correct as it stands.

So, also, in the following the verb is correct: "But with Socrates moral and intellectual excellence *were* inseparable, and as he could discover no security for conduct but knowledge, so he could find, in the first instance at least, no other subject for knowledge *but* [than] human conduct."—*Saturday Review*.

The following sentences, given by Dr. Hodgson in *Errors in the Use of English*, as illustrations of the incorrect use of the verb, are correct, except where noted by the marks of parenthesis:

Bodily and intellectual labor *were* paid at the same rate of wages.—*M. D. Conway*.

Sacred and profane wisdom *agree* in declaring that "pride goeth before a fall."—*Spectator*.

Those most important and complex changes which political and social science *have* brought about.—*Sir H. Holland*.

To be worth anything, literary and scientific criticism *require*, both of them, the finest heads and the *most sure* [surest] tact.—*Matthew Arnold*.

It is not only possible, but (also) probable, that lay and clerical opinion *are* at variance.—*Manchester Examiner*.

It is true that the Scotch and (the) English patronage *are* two different things.—*Spectator*.

In each of the six foregoing sentences a noun is understood after the first of each pair of adjectives.

Distributive Pronouns as Subjects.—The distributive adjective pronouns, *each*, *either*, *neither*, when used as subjects, require verbs and pronouns in the singular number; as, "Each of the boys *has* done *his* duty."

Indefinite Pronominal Adjectives as Subjects.—Of the indefinite pronominal adjectives, when used as pronouns, *some* and *all* are used in the plural; *one*, *other*, and

another, in the singular; and *any* and *none* in either the singular or the plural, according to the sense implied in the sentence.

Errors in the Use of Verbs having Adjective Pronouns as Subjects.

It is true that not one of the bright particular stars of Polish history *were* [was] of that line or age.—*Saturday Review*.

While either of these *are* [is] hungry,

Nor poppy, nor mandragora,

Nor all the drowsy syrups of the East

Will ever medicine *them* [him] to slumber.—*Fielding*.

Neither of these boys *were* [was] so remarkable for *their* [his] talents as for (the) thoroughness of *their* [his] work.—*Rev. G. Butler*.

In this composition neither of the arms *cross* [crosses] the body.—*Lady Eastlake*.

Neither of us *deny* [denies] that Homer and Virgil have great beauties.—*Blair*.

But neither of these circumstances *are* [is] intended here.—*Horne Tooke*.

And yet neither of them *express* [expresses] any more action in this case than *they* [he] did in the other.—*Bullions*.

Each in *their* [his] turn like Banquo's monarchs *stalk* [stalks].—*Byron*.

"Mind," says one, "soul," says another, "brain or matter," says a third; but none of these *are* [is] right.—*C. Bray: Illusion and Delusion*.

Relative Pronouns as Subjects.—Frequent errors occur in the putting of a relative pronoun in the objective case where it is used as the subject of a verb. Thus, "I saw the boy *whom* [who] we thought had gone."

Errors in the Use of Relative Pronouns as Subjects and Predicate Nominatives.

Nina was annoyed by the presence of Mr. Jekyl, *whom* [who] her brothers insisted should remain to dinner.—*Mrs. H. B. Stowe*.

Those two, no matter who spoke, or *whom* [who] was addressed, looked at each other.—*Dickens*.

I offer a prize of six *pairs* [pair] of gloves to *whomsoever* [whosoever] will tell me what idea in this second part is mine.—*Dickens*.

The face of the good Samaritan was written on the face of *whomsoever* [whosoever] opens to the stranger.—*Miss Alcott*.

Why should I be told to serve Him if I do not know *Whom* [who] it is I serve?—*Florence Nightingale*.

Pray, remain single and marry nobody, let him be *whom* [who] he may.—*Sidney Smith*.

Milton, in his "Iconoclastes," insolently wrote, "I shall not instance an abstruse author, wherein the king might be less conversant, but one *whom* [who] we well know was the closest companion of these solitudes, William Shakespeare."—*I. Disraeli*.

Friday, *whom* [who] he thinks would be better than a dog, and almost as good as a pony.—*National Review*.

I was assured that if taken up by English capitalists, *whom* [who] they seemed very anxious should buy and work them, the mines would be found highly remunerative.—*King: Penine Alps*.

Relative Pronouns to be Repeated.—In contracted sentences, when the case or the government is changed, the relative should be repeated. Thus, "The upper part of the house, of which I know nothing and have never seen," should read "which I have never seen."

Relative Pronouns Improperly Omitted.

The domain of the husband to whom she felt that she had sold herself, and (by whom she) had been paid the strict price—nay, paid more than she had dared to ask.—*George Eliot, in Daniel Deronda*.

Originality in politics, as in every field of art, consists in the use and application of the ideas which we get or (which) are given to us.—*Justin McCarthy*.

It is a persuasion which we all smile at in one another, and (which) we all justify in ourselves.—*Miss Martineau*.

A man could not sustain such a position; it represents a momentary action, which the sculptor must have often seen, and (which) is perfectly true to nature.—*Lady Eastlake*.

One of the last of his parliamentary speeches was delivered in defense of Warren Hastings, with whom he was on terms of intimate friendship, and (whom he) regarded as a consummate statesman, and the savior of India.—*W. F. Rae, in John Wilkes*.

While at Brussels he fought a duel by moonlight with a Spaniard with whom he had been gambling, and (whom he) suspected of cheating him.—*Lady Jackson, in Old Paris*.

Agreement in Tense.—Verbs connected by *and*, *nor*, *than*, etc., and referring to acts occurring at the same time, must agree in tense.

A proper succession of tenses should be observed where one verb depends on another.

Errors in the Use of Tenses.

It would doubtless have exhibited itself quietly enough if it *were* [had been] absolutely undiluted.—*Justin McCarthy*.

If with equal force of character his intellectual power had been less, we *should feel* [should have felt] the shock without the mysterious attraction.—*Leslie Stephen*.

Very amusing and useful companions Dharma would have found them, *were it not* [had it not been] for her longing after the woods and sea-breezes of Cliffdale.—*Dharma*, vol. iii., p. 290.

We can conceive no argument more utterly baseless than that which assumes (that) he would have accomplished all he has done, and a great deal more, if a different principle of action *were* [had been] substituted for that which, as yet, has always been the main-spring of his movements.—*Quarterly Review*.

It is entirely reasonable to doubt that *were* [had] temporal aid and support also (been) offered, they would likewise have been at once thankfully received.—*Rev. W. McIlwaine*.

Ellipsis of the Principal Verb.—In subordinate clauses, in contracted sentences, and in answers, the auxiliaries *do, have, may, can, shall, and will*, sometimes admit of an ellipsis of the principal verb; as, “He never did like the work and he never will.”

An ellipsis of this kind is permissible only when the form of the verb in one clause is such that it can be repeated without change in the other. Thus, “I have not spoken, and I cannot (spoken)” is neither correct nor justifiable.

Improper Omission of Verbs.

I am anxious for the time when he will talk as much nonsense to me as I have (talked) to him.—*W. S. Landor*.

Some part of this exemption and liability may (be) and no doubt is due to mental or physical causes in the unhappy or (in the) fortunate individual.—*Spectator*.

Shelley, like Byron, knew early what it *was* [is] to love; almost all the great poets have (known).—*Memoirs of Shelley*.

She could meet no one among the lanes and (the) cornfields who could claim her as had those odious *relations* [relatives] of hers (claimed her).—*Mrs. Linton, in Sowing the Wind*.

But the problem is one which no research has hitherto solved, and probably never will (solve).—*Sir H. Holland*.

No introduction has (authorized), nor in all probability ever will authorize, that which common thinkers would call a liberty.—*P. B. Shelley*.

He ridicules the notion that truth will prevail; it never has (prevailed) and it never will (prevail).—*Leslie Stephen*.

I never have (attacked) and (I) never will attack a man for speculative opinion.—*H. T. Buckle*.

Disjoined Subjects.—When a subject in the singular number is connected with another noun or pronoun by *with* instead of *and*, the verb should have the singular form. Thus, “The house *and* its contents *were* burned,” but “The house, *with* its contents, *was* burned.”

Where plurality is signified, as "the house and the barn," it is better to use *and* rather than *with*.

Errors in the Use of Verbs with Disjoined Subjects.

My sympathy with him in this ill-usage, along with my admiration for his fortitude and generosity, *were* [was] the beginning of the great affection that I afterward had for him.—*Hope: Stories of Ideal Life*.

Poor Mrs. B's crippled baby, with all his many other failures, *were* [was] at once forgotten by his patience.—*John Hollingshead, in Ways of Life*.

The amount of discussion which finds utterance in the poem, equally with the valuable analysis of mental phenomena, *are* [is] nothing less than startling.—*H. B. Forman*.

The electric light, with powerful reflectors, *are* [is] the means to be employed.—*Newspaper*.

When Leonidas, the Spartan king, *with* [and] his chosen band fighting for their country, *were* cut off to the last man.—*Kames' Elements of Criticism*.

And a considerable village, with gardens, fields, etc., *extend* [extends] around on each side of the square.—*Liberator*.

The spacious firmament on high,

With all the blue ethereal sky,

And spangled heavens, a shining frame,

Their great Original *proclaim* [proclaims].—*Addison*.

The side A B, with the side B C, *form* [forms] a right angle.—*Geometry*.

The bag, with the money and the checks in it, *were* [was] stolen.—*Newspaper*.

The King, *with* [and] the Lords and (the) Commons, constitute an excellent form of government.—*Crombie's Treatise*.

The Concord of "There."—Either a singular or a plural verb may follow *there* introducing a sentence, according to the number of the noun used as the subject of the sentence.

Dr. Abbott cites thirty-two passages from Shakespeare

in which "There is," "There was," etc., singular forms, are followed by plural subjects, or two or more singular subjects. But this is not in accordance with good usage, nor should this bad example be imitated.

Errors in the Concord of There.

On the table there *was* [were] neatly and handily arranged two long pipes.—*James Greenwood, in Unsentimental Journeys.*

There *exists* [exist] sometimes only in germ and potentiality, sometimes more or less developed, the same tendencies and passions *which* [that] have made our fellow-citizens of other classes what they are.—*Matthew Arnold.*

There *is* [are] such malice, treachery, and dissimulation, even among professed friends and intimate companions, as cannot fail to strike a virtuous mind with horror.—*Smollett.*

Although the market traffic had not yet commenced, there *was* [were] considerable noise and confusion.—*James Greenwood.*

There *was* [were] the buoyancy of spirit, the undoubting confidence, that the riddle of the universe had at last been satisfactorily solved, and the power of seizing the picturesque and striking aspects of things, and embodying abstract theories in vivid symbols, which *marks* [mark] the second order of intellects.—*Leslie Stephen.*

There *was* [were] about her the brilliancy of courts and palaces, the enchantment of a love-story, the suffering of a victim of despotic power.—*Madame Bonaparte.*

Surely there *is* [are] both grandeur and eloquence in his apostrophe to the atheists *whom* [who] he knew abounded in Louis XIV.'s Court, and whom he warned that their eternity was an inevitable fact.—*Bossuet and his Companions.*

Error of Proximity.—Frequently the subject of a sentence is obscured by the intervention of two or more prepositional phrases or dependent clauses between the subject and the verb agreeing with it.

Errors of Proximity.

I have no feeling connected with my general recollection of them, but those to which the *combination* of good sense, wit, and genius naturally *give* [gives] rise.—*Sydney Smith*.

A moral and honorable *mode* of action and thought *are* [is] enforced as a duty.—*Mayhew: German Life*.

If a man's conscience is either crotchety, superstitious, or cowardly, this is positive proof that the man himself must have been either false, idle, or cowardly in his thoughts, and some *degree* of disappointment and contempt *are* [is] the appropriate *punishments* [punishment] for these offenses.—*Saturday Review*.

The game was played out, and the end *was come* [had come], as the *end* of such matters generally *come* [comes], by gradual decay, petty disaster, and mistakes.—*Kingsley*.

A *sojourn* of five years in the military hospitals, camps, and towns of Algeria *have* [has] originated and strengthened these opinions.—*Miss M. B. Edwards*.

Culture points out that the harmonious *perfection* of generations of Puritans and Nonconformists *have* [has] been in consequence sacrificed.—*M. Arnold*.

The *introduction* of such beverages as tea and coffee *have* [has] not been without *their* [its] effects.—*Westminster Review*.

On the *tenant* [tenant's] being ejected, the unexhausted *value* of the unpaid manures *go* [goes] to the landlord.—*Scotch Agricultural Report*.

M. Guizot's *republication* of some of his more important political essays, written at intervals during a period of fifty years, *are* [is] interesting at the present time.—*Westminster Review*.

The *opposition* of interests which we have spoken of *refer* [refers] only to variations in the relative magnitude of those portions or shares into which wealth is distributed.—*Fawcett: Manual of Political Economy*.

As has been stated already, the *severity* of the symptoms *were* [was] no criterion of the severity of the disease.—*A. Griffiths: Memorial of Millbank*.

The *translation* of specimens of the "Recent French Poets," by Arthur O'Shaughnessy, *are* [has been] very brightly done.—*Guardian*.

The inferior number of red particles in their blood *do* [does] not make women the political inferiors of men.—*Prof. T. C. Leslie*.

Nothing but dreary dikes, muddy and straight, guarded by the ghosts of suicidal pollards, and by rows of dreary and desolate mills, *occur* [occurs] to break the blank gray monotony of the landscape.—*F. W. Farrar: St. Winifred*.

"Than" as a Connective.—*Than*, as a conjunction, is used to connect sentences; as, "He is older than I" (am old). Dr. Hodgson and some others take the ground that *than* must connect like cases, nominative with nominative, and objective with objective. Thus, they would condemn the following sentence from Kingsley's *Westward Ho*: "Think not of me, good fellows, nor talk of me; but come behind me decently, as Christian men, and follow to the grave the body of a better than I" and change the *I* to *me*, on the ground that the conjunction connects the noun *man* in the objective with the pronoun *I*, which they claim should also be in the objective case.

The conjunction *than* connects sentences here as elsewhere, and the sentence means, "Follow to the grave a better man than I" (am good), and it is correct as written by Mr. Kingsley.

So also the following from Dickens, which Dr. Hodgson condemns, is correct: "The smooth manner of the spy, cautiously in dissonance with his ostentatiously rough dress, and probably with his usual demeanor, received such a check from the inscrutability of Carton, who was a mystery to wiser and honester men than *he*, that it faltered here, and failed him."

Errors in Case with "Than" as a Connective.

I'll tell you what, brother Frank, you are a great deal wiser than *me* [I], I know, but I can't abide to see you turn up your nose, as it were, at God's good earth.—*Kingsley*.

He must be a wiser man than *me* [I] who can tell what advantage or satisfaction he derives from having brought such a nest of hornets about his ears.—*Smollett*.

INFINITIVES.

A verb in the infinitive mode is not limited by person or number.

It may be used as a noun in either the nominative or the objective case.

It may be used also as a modifier of any part of speech except an article, a preposition, a conjunction, or an interjection.

When the infinitive is used as a noun, it may still be modified as a verb.

The verb in the infinitive mode is sometimes used independently; as, "To confess the truth, I forgot the date."

The infinitive of an intransitive verb, or of a transitive verb in the passive voice, may be followed by a noun or a pronoun used independently; as, "To become a successful *man* requires industry."

The infinitive after a word of command is usually preceded by a noun or a pronoun in the objective case; as, "We ordered *him* to come," the whole expression being the object of the finite verb *ordered*.

The sign *to* must not be separated from the remaining part of the infinitive by an intervening word. Thus, "He tried finally to pay," not "He tried to finally pay."

After the active voice of the verbs *bid* (to command), *see*, *feel*, *hear*, *let*, *make*, *dare* (to venture), and verbs of similar meaning, as *watch*, *behold*, etc., the sign *to* of the infinitive is omitted; as, "See him go;" "Let us play."

The sign *to* is occasionally used after a few of the foregoing words when they are emphatic; as, "Darest thou *to* beard the lion in his den?"

The infinitive sign *to* should never be used for the full form. Thus, "I did not go because I did not want *to*," should be "I did not go because I did not want to go."

When the action, being, or state, expressed by the infinitive, is present or future as compared with that expressed by the verb which it limits, the present tense of the infinitive is used. Thus, "I expected to come;" that is, I expected at that time to come then or in the future.

When the action, being, or state, expressed by the infinitive, is past as compared with that expressed by the verb which it limits, the present perfect tense of the infinitive is used. Thus, "Cæsar seems (present time) to have been (past time) ambitious."

Verbs expressing *hope*, *intention*, *desire*, *command*, or *expectation*, are followed by the present tense of the infinitive.

Errors in the Use of the Infinitive.

There are several faults which I intended *to have mentioned* [to mention].—*Webster*.

They hoped *to have met* [to meet] each other.—*Newspaper*.

So as neither to embarrass nor (to) weaken each other.—*Blair*.

Their character is found and made (to) appear.—*Butler's Analogy*.

He wanted to go, but he had no opportunity to (go).—*Newspaper*.

He was made (to) believe that neither the king's death nor (his) imprisonment would help him.—*Sheffield's Works*.

He can show his moral courage only by daring (to) do right.—*Goold Brown*.

The bulls of Guisando are two vast statues remaining in that town ever since the time of the Romans, supposed *to be* [to have been] set up by Metellus.—*Lockhart's Don Quixote*.

We ought not to try *and* [to] define God.—*Taine*.

They would not say that the facts stated in the indictment would have been fully sufficient *to have warranted* [to warrant] the judge *to have directed* [to direct], and the jury *to have given* [to give], a general verdict.—*Lord Erskine*.

(Better, "Fully sufficient to warrant the judge in directing the jury to give," etc.)

I found him better than I expected *to have found* [to find] him.—*Priestley's Grammar*.

I meant, when I first came, *to have bought* [to buy] it.—*Sydney Smith*.

It has been my intention *to have collected* [to collect] the remnants of Keats' compositions.—*Shelley*.

I intended *to have insisted* [to insist] on this sympathy at greater length.—*Ruskin*.

Friendships which we once hoped and believed would never *have grown* [grow] cold.—*F. W. Farrar: Julian Home*.

Could I have chosen my own period of the world *to have lived* [to live] in, and my own type of life, *it should be* [would have been] the feudal age, and the life of the Cid, the redresser of wrongs.—*Rev. F. W. Robertson*.

I had hoped never *to have seen* [to see] the statues again when I missed them on the bridge.—*Macaulay*.

He paid me many compliments upon my sermon against bad husbands, so that it is clear he intended *to have made* [to make] a very good one.—*Sydney Smith*.

We should have thought that the Bishop might have been contented *to have pointed* [to point] out that to nations, as to individuals, selfishness is its own worst punishment.—*Spectator*.

We happened *to have been* [to be] present on the occasion.—*Mayhew: German Life*.

We would have liked *to have read* [to read] it to Isola; it would have been pleasant *to have heard* [to hear] his own voice giving due emphasis to the big words.—*Mrs. Lynn Linton: Sowing the Wind.*

If he had lived longer, it would have been difficult for him *to have kept* [to keep] the station to which he had risen.—*H. L. Bulwer, in Historical Characters.*

That the mind may not have to go backwards and forwards in order *to rightly correct* [rightly to correct] them.—*Herbert Spencer.*

I wish the reader *to clearly understand* [to understand clearly].—*Ruskin.*

Transactions which seem *to be most widely separated* [to be separated most widely] from one another.—*Dr. Blair.*

The ladies seem *to have been expressly created* [to have been created expressly] to form helps meet for such gentlemen.—*Macaulay.*

The spirits, therefore, of those opposed to them seemed *to be considerably damped* [to be damped considerably] by their continued success.—*Scott.*

That virtue which requires *to be ever guarded* [to be guarded ever] is scarcely worth the sentinel.—*Goldsmith.*

In works of art, this kind of grandeur, which consists in multitude, is *to be very cautiously guarded* [to be guarded very cautiously].—*Burke.*

Sufficient to disgust a people whose manners were beginning *to be strongly tinctured* [to be tinctured strongly] with austerity.—*Macaulay.*

PARTICIPLES.

A *Participle* partakes of the nature of a verb and of an adjective.

When a participle is used as a noun it may be in either the nominative or the objective case, and be modified in all respects like a verb.

A participle used as a noun may be limited by a possessive; as, "*My staying* did not interfere with *their running*."

A participle may be followed by a noun or a pronoun used independently; as, "My being a *minister* gained me ready entrance."

The perfect participle, and not the past tense, is used with the auxiliaries *have* and *be* in the different modes and tenses. Thus, "We had gone;" "We have written;" "They have been singing."

The past tense, and not the participle, should be used to express past time. Thus, "We went;" "We wrote."

When the participle is preceded by *the*, and generally when it is preceded by an adjective, it is followed by *of*; as, "*The* curbing of the temper is necessary."

The placing of a participial phrase should be such as to make clear the meaning of the sentence in which it is found.

A participle should not be used when the infinitive mode, a common noun, or a phrase equivalent, will better express the meaning. Thus, "The planting of a tree is evidence of a love of beauty," is better than "Planting a tree is evidence," etc.

Errors in the Use of Participles.

In the choice they had made of him, for (the) restoring of order.—*Rollin's History*.

In (the) punishing of this we overthrow

The laws of nations and of nature too.—*Dryden*.

It is the giving (of) different names of the same object.—*Kames*.

The keeping (of) juries without meat, drink, or fire, can be accounted for only on the same idea.—*Webster's Essays*.

And yet the confining (of) themselves to this true principle has misled them.—*Horne Tooke*.

Which require only the doing (of) an external action.—*Butler's Analogy*.

Miraculous curing (of) the sick is discontinued.—*Barclay's Works*.

Never attempt *prolonging* [to prolong] the pathetic too much.—*Blair*.

But Artaxerxes could not refuse *pardonning* [to pardon] them.—*Goldsmith's Greece*.

You have proved beyond contradiction, that *acting* [to act] thus is the sure way to procure such an object.—*Campbell's Rhetoric*.

And sound sleep thus *broke* [broken] off, with sudden alarms, is apt enough to discompose any one.—*Locke*.

Garcilasso was master of the language *spoke* [spoken] by the Incas.—*Robertson's America*.

When an interesting story is *broke* [broken] off in the middle.—*Kames*.

I assure you therefore seriously, and upon my honor, that the carrying (of) this point seems essential to the success of this measure.—*W. J. Fox*.

I suppose her knowledge of the *Emperor* [Emperor's] having left nothing to his son induced her to make such a will.—*Madame Bonaparte*.

A hammer is the cause of the *nail* [nail's] being driven.—*Haven*.

Is not the bare fact of *God* [God's] being the witness of it sufficient ground for its credibility to rest upon?—*Chalmers' Sermons*.

As in the case of *one* [one's] entering upon a new study.—*Beattie's Moral Science*.

From the general rule he lays down, of the *verbs* [verbs'] being the parent word of all language.—*Horne Tooke*.

ADVERBS.

Adverbs modify verbs, adjectives, participles, and other adverbs.

Adverbs may also modify phrases or clauses that perform the office of adjectives or adverbs. Thus, in the sentence, "The road crosses the creek just below the

city," the adverb *just* does not modify the preposition *below*, as is stated by some writers on grammar, but it modifies the adverbial phrase "below the city."

"The bird flew *directly over the house*;" "The orchard is *just beyond the meadow*;" "I was struck *just below the eye*," are similar sentences in which *directly* and *just* modify prepositional phrases used as adverbial modifiers.

Adverbs when not modifiers may be used independently, as the italicised words in the following:

Well, are you ready?

There were six in the carriage.

Now, let us start.

The words *yes*, *yea*, *ay*, *no*, *nay*, when used in answer to questions, are usually equivalent to propositions. They may be parsed as adverbs used independently. The word *amen* may be parsed in the same manner.

Such expressions as "Up with" and "Down with" are properly complex verbs.

Adverbial phrases should be parsed as single expressions only when the words of which they consist cannot be parsed separately.

A conjunctive adverb not only connects two clauses, but it also modifies a verb in each clause.

The independent adverb *there* is by some grammarians called an expletive.

In such expressions as "scalding hot," "freezing cold," "dripping wet," the words *scalding*, *freezing*, *dripping*, are adverbs used to modify the adjectives which follow them.

The word *the* is an adverb when it modifies an adjective or another adverb, as in "*The deeper the well, the cooler the water*;" "*The more I study, the better I like it*."

When simple quality is to be expressed an adjective, and not an adverb, should be used; as,

“The rose smells *sweet*.”

“The lady looks *beautiful*.”

“I feel *bad*.”

Adverbs should be so placed as to show clearly what words they modify. Thus, “I have only one,” not “I only have one.”

As suggested in the discussion of infinitives, an adverb should not be placed between *to* and the remainder of the infinitive.

Special care must be taken to place the adverbs *only*, *chiefly*, *merely*, *solely*, and others of a similar signification in such a position that the meaning of the sentence may not be misunderstood. Thus, “He chiefly spoke for our entertainment,” should be “He spoke chiefly for our entertainment,” in which *chiefly* modifies the phrase “for our entertainment.”

No as an adverb can modify comparatives only; as, *no longer*, *no better*, *no more*. It should not be used as a substitute for *not*, as in “I do not know whether I shall go or *no* [not].”

The adverb *ever*, when it follows such words as *rarely* and *seldom*, is preceded by *if*; as, “Rarely, if ever;” “Seldom, if ever;” but the adverb *never* in such cases is preceded by *or*; as, “Rarely, or never;” “Seldom, or never.” All these are correct English expressions.

When negation is intended, but one negative adverb should be used; as, “We have nothing to give;” but when affirmation is intended, *not* may be used before a word having a negative prefix; as, “He was not disqualified;” “They were not dissatisfied.”

The adverb *how* and the words *how that* should not be

used as substitutes for the word *that* in adding a subordinate clause; thus, "They said that he must be punished," not "*how that* he must be punished."

From should not be used before the words *hence*, *whence*, *thence*, as it is already implied in these words. Thus, *whence* means "from where," and *from whence* must mean "from from where."

Where and *when* should not be used as substitutes for *which* and its adjuncts when meaning place or time. Thus, "I have forgotten the name of the town *where* they live," should be "in which they live." Also, "The year *when* this took place," should be "The year *in which* this took place."

Avoid the use of *'most* for *almost*, *'way* for *away*, *illy* for *ill*, and *directly* for *as soon as*. There is no such word as *illy*.

Some writers on grammar object to the use of the word *like* as a conjunctive adverb, as in the sentence "The bird flies like a swallow." They claim that *as* should be substituted for *like* in all such cases. But there are many sentences in which such a substitution would be misleading, and therefore incorrect. Notice the difference of meaning caused by the reconstruction of Byron's sentence,

a. "The Assyrian came down like a wolf on the fold;"

b. "The Assyrian came down as a wolf," etc.

In the first and correct form of the sentence the meaning is, "The Assyrian came down *like* a wolf (comes down) on the fold."

In the second form, "The Assyrian came down *as* a wolf," etc., the Assyrian is made to assume the character of a wolf, a thought wholly foreign to the intention of the author.

In the following sentences no question can arise as to the propriety of using *like* as a conjunctive adverb:

a. Satan goeth about like a roaring lion (goeth about), seeking whom he may devour.—*Bible*.

b. Sail like my pinnace (sails) to these golden shores.—*Shakespeare*.

c. I have ventured,
Like little wanton boys that swim on bladders (venture),
This many summers in a sea of glory.—*Shakespeare*.

d. Like one (stands) in prayer I stood.—*Longfellow*.

e. The cattle are grazing,
Their heads never raising,
There are forty feeding like one (feeds).—*Wordsworth*.

f. Since I may say, now lie I like a king (lies).—*Shakespeare*.

g. Spreading himself like a green bay tree (spreads itself).—*Psalms*.

h. Like the dew on the mountain (),
Like the foam on the river (),
Like the bubble on the fountain (),
Thou art gone and forever.—*Scott*.

i. [The sound] rang in his ears like the iron hoofs of the steeds of Time (ring).—*Longfellow*.

j. Goodman Brown came into the street of Salem village staring like a bewildered man (stares).—*Hawthorne*.

Sometimes when the verb is expressed in the subordinate clause, *as* or *as if* takes the place of *like* as the connective; as, "I do with my friends *as* I do with my books."—*Emerson*.

One author on grammar says that *like* must not be followed by a noun or a pronoun in the nominative case; but it always is so followed when the verb in the principal clause expresses action.

Another writer on grammar makes the very positive statement that *like* is never a conjunction, and therefore it cannot be used instead of *as* to introduce a clause.

This author claims that it is incorrect to say "Run like I run," but that we may say "He runs like me," in which of course *like* is considered an adjective or an adverb. But the verb *runs* being active, and actions being compared, the true meaning of the sentence is, "He runs like me runs," or, corrected, "He runs like I (run);" and "like" clearly performs the office of both conjunction and adverb, and is therefore a conjunctive adverb.

Another author, in sentences such as "He walks like I walk," pronounces *like* a subordinate conjunction of manner. This is at least a new but wholly unnecessary division of conjunctions, which is already covered by the term conjunctive adverb, as the office of the word is not that of a conjunction alone nor that of an adverb, but of both.

Like is used also as an adjective, in which case a preposition seems to be understood after the word "like" in sentences expressing a comparison: Thus,

"The boy was *like* (unto) his father."

"What though my wingèd hours of bliss have been,

Like () angels' visits, few and far between."—*Campbell*.

"The boy *looks like* [resembles] his father."

The distinction between the use of *like* as a conjunctive adverb and as an adjective is—

1. That *like* as a conjunctive adverb compares actions; as, "She *sings* like an angel (sings);" whereas *like* as an adjective compares objects; as, "John is like his father;" "The school is like a government;" "She looks like her mother."

2. When *like* is used as a conjunctive adverb it is preceded by a verb denoting action, and the same verb may be taken as the predicate of the clause following; as,

“He *runs* like a deer (runs);” “You *act* like a child (acts).”

When *like* is used as an adjective in sentences expressing comparison, the verb in the principal clause, preceding *like*, does not express action; as, “There *is* no statue like this living man.”

3. *Like* as a conjunctive adverb connects clauses of a complex sentence, and is followed by a noun or a pronoun in the nominative case, used as the subject of the subordinate clause.

In sentences where *like* is used as an adjective it is part of the predicate of the simple sentence in which it is found, and is followed by a noun or a pronoun in the objective case; as, “He is like () me;” “He is not unlike () his father.”

The examples given show that it is entirely in accordance with the best of authority to use *like* as a conjunctive adverb with a nominative case following, or as an adjective with an objective following.

Such sentences as “He talks like her” and “She walks like me,” can mean only “He talks like her talks” and “She walks like me walks,” and are gross violations of one of the simplest principles of grammar.

Sometimes the adjective form of a verb is used adverbially; as, “The swallow sings *sweet* from her nest in the wall.” This is usually done in poetry to make the meter correct.

Adverbs consisting of two or more words not united may be regarded as complex adverbs; as, *by and by*, *upside down*, *now and then*.

Adverbs consisting of two or more words united may be regarded as compound adverbs; as, *somehow*, *helter-skelter*, *topsy-turvy*.

Far, *farther*, *farthest*, relate to distance, and may be

used either as adjectives; as, "It is farther to Asia than to Europe;" or as adverbs; as, "I have gone farther than you."

Forth, further, furthest, are used when meaning "something additional;" as, "I have nothing further to say;" "Are there any further arguments to be offered?"

Errors in the Use of Adverbs.

Most men dream, but *all do not* [not all do].—*Beattie*.

By hasty composition we shall *acquire certainly* [certainly acquire] a very bad style.—*Blair*.

We *have often occasion* [often have occasion] to speak of time.—*Lowth*.

Whether it can be proved or *no* [not] is not the thing.—*Butler's Analogy*.

Can I make men live whether they will or *no* [not]?—*Shakespeare*.

Which is *scarce* [scarcely] possible at least.—*Sheridan's Elocution*.

What need is there that I should say anything *farther* [further] on this question?—*Popular Lecturer*.

Shall we have any *farther* [further] discussion?—*Superintendent's Address*.

They will, too, *not merely interest* [interest not merely] the children, but (also) grown-up persons.—*Westminster Review*.

Homer was *not only the maker* [the maker not only] of a nation, but (also) of a language and of a religion.—*Athenæum*.

We were *only permitted to stop for refreshments* [permitted to stop for refreshments only] once by the way, so that without the provision of cold fowl, bread, and wafers, which we *only happened to think of* [happened to think of only] the moment before setting out, our situation would have been somewhat deplorable.—*Mrs. Ellis: Summer and Winter in the Pyrenees*.

The result is *not pleasant to us only* [pleasant to us not only] because it fulfills our predictions, but (also) because any other would have been productive of infinite mischief.—*Spectator*.

We seldom *or ever* [if ever] see those forsaken who trust in God.—*Atterbury*.

In considering the life of Seneca we are *not only dealing* [dealing not only] with a life which was rich in memorable incidents, but also (with) the life of one who climbed the loftiest peaks of the moral philosophy of Paganism.—*Rev. F. W. Farrar, D. D.*

PREPOSITIONS.

A **Preposition** is used to show the relation between some noun or pronoun following it and some preceding word which the preposition with its object modifies.

When two prepositions used together express a single relation they may be considered one term, and be called a complex preposition; as *out of* in the sentence "They came running *out of* the house."

But is a preposition when it is used in the sense of except; as, "All but him have come."

In such expressions as *had set in*, *were looked for*, etc., the preposition becomes part of the verb; *had set in* means "had commenced," and *were looked for*, "were expected."

A preposition ending a sentence without an object becomes an adverb; as, "Come *in*;" "Come *on*."

After *like*, *near*, *nigh*, and *opposite*, the preposition is usually omitted.

The preposition is also sometimes omitted after verbs of *giving*, *procuring*, and a few others; as, "Get () me a book;" "Give () me some help;" "Teach () me the way."

The preposition is omitted also before nouns denoting *time*, *value*, or *measure*; as, "We talked () an hour;" "The book is worth () a dollar;" "We had walked () ten miles."

In exclamatory sentences the antecedent is frequently omitted; as, "Oh, for a home!" That is, "Oh, I long for a home!"

A preposition should not be omitted except when such construction is sanctioned by good usage. Thus, "We fled the country," should be "We fled from the country."

Care should be taken to use the proper preposition to express the meaning intended. Certain words require the association with them of certain prepositions.

The following are some of the most important combinations:

Abatement <i>of</i> .	Adapted <i>to</i> a thing, <i>for</i> a purpose, <i>from</i> a production.
Abhorrence <i>of</i> .	Adjourn <i>to</i> a place, <i>at</i> an hour, <i>from</i> one place or hour to another.
Abhorrent <i>to</i> .	Admission <i>to</i> (access), <i>into</i> (entrance).
Abide <i>in</i> or <i>at</i> a place, <i>with</i> a person, <i>by</i> a decision or an award.	Advantage <i>over</i> a person, <i>of</i> privileges.
Abound <i>in</i> that which is possessed, <i>with</i> that which follows or inhabits.	Advice <i>to</i> a person, <i>of</i> a transaction.
Absolve <i>from</i> .	Advise <i>of</i> .
Accede <i>to</i> .	Advocate <i>of</i> a cause, <i>for</i> a person.
Accommodate a thing <i>to</i> , a person <i>with</i> .	Affinity <i>of</i> sounds or colors, <i>for</i> a person, <i>between</i> persons.
Accompanied <i>by</i> persons or animals, <i>with</i> things inanimate.	Agree <i>to</i> proposals, <i>with</i> a person, <i>upon</i> something determined.
Accord <i>with</i> (intransitive), <i>to</i> (transitive).	Agreeable <i>to</i> .
Accountable <i>to</i> a person, <i>for</i> a thing.	Allied <i>to</i> a cause, <i>with</i> a person.
Accuse <i>of</i> .	Alter <i>from</i> one thing, <i>to</i> another.
Acquaint <i>with</i> .	
Acquiesce <i>in</i> .	
Acquit <i>of</i> .	

Analogy <i>between</i> two objects, <i>to</i> or <i>with</i> another.	Border <i>on</i> , or <i>upon</i> .
Angry <i>at</i> a thing, <i>with</i> a person.	Bound <i>for</i> .
Answer <i>to</i> a person, <i>for</i> an offence.	Call <i>at</i> a place, <i>on</i> a person, <i>for</i> a person or a thing, <i>in</i> question, <i>by</i> name, <i>to</i> or <i>after</i> a person.
Antagonism <i>between</i> two things, <i>to</i> or <i>against</i> a thing.	Care <i>for</i> , <i>about</i> .
Anxious <i>for</i> success, <i>about</i> one's welfare.	Careful <i>of</i> our possessions, <i>about</i> our conduct.
Apologize <i>for</i> an affront, <i>to</i> another.	Charge <i>on</i> an enemy, <i>with</i> a crime, <i>against</i> a person, <i>to</i> one's account.
Appoint <i>to</i> a place, <i>over</i> others.	Clear <i>of</i> harm, <i>from</i> guilt.
Argue <i>with</i> a person, <i>against</i> a project.	Communicate <i>to</i> a person, <i>with</i> others.
Array <i>with</i> arguments, <i>in</i> colors or dress.	Compare <i>with</i> in quality, <i>to</i> for illustration.
Arrive <i>at</i> a place, <i>in</i> a vehicle, <i>from</i> a place.	Comply <i>with</i> .
Ask <i>of</i> a person, <i>for</i> what is wanted, <i>after</i> one's health.	Complain <i>against</i> a person, <i>of</i> actions.
Aspire <i>to</i> a thing, <i>after</i> an abstraction, as immortality.	Concede <i>to</i> .
Attend <i>to</i> (listen), attend <i>upon</i> (wait).	Concur <i>with</i> a person, <i>in</i> an opinion.
Averse <i>to</i> .	Condemned <i>for</i> a crime, <i>to</i> a punishment.
Banish <i>from</i> a place <i>to</i> another.	Confer <i>on</i> or <i>upon</i> a measure, <i>with</i> (to consult), <i>upon</i> (to give as a favor).
Bargain <i>with</i> a person, <i>for</i> a thing.	Confide <i>in</i> (to trust in).
Bestow <i>on</i> or <i>upon</i> .	Confide <i>to</i> (to entrust with).
Betray <i>to</i> a person, <i>into</i> a project.	Conform <i>to</i> ; in conformity <i>with</i> ; conformable <i>to</i> .
Bind <i>to</i> a person, <i>by</i> a bond.	Congratulate <i>on</i> or <i>upon</i> .
Blush <i>at</i> a sight, <i>for</i> another's conduct.	Connect <i>with</i> an equal, <i>to</i> a superior.
Boast <i>of</i> .	Connive <i>with</i> a person, <i>at</i> a proceeding.
	Consist <i>of</i> (composed of), consist <i>in</i> (comprised in).

Contend *with* a person, *against* an obstacle, *for* a right or a principle.

Contradictory *of*.

Controversy *with* a person, *between* two, *about* matters.

Convenient *for* persons, *to* places.

Conversant *with*.

Convert *to* a doctrine, *into* something else.

Copy *after* actions, *from* things, *out of* a book.

Correspond *with* (by letter), *to* similars.

Covered *with* or *by*.

Debar *from* entrance, *of* privileges.

Defend others *from*, ourselves *against*.

Depend, dependent, *on* or *upon*.

Derogatory *to*.

Desirous *of*.

Devolve *on* or *upon*.

Die *of* a disease, *from* hunger or thirst, *by* violence or an instrument, *for* another.

Differ *with* a person in opinion, *from* a person in qualities or characteristics, *about* or *concerning* a question, *among* (to disagree).

Different *from*.

Diminution *of*.

Disagree *in* opinion, *to* something proposed.

Disappointed *of* something

not obtained, *in* something obtained which fails to meet our expectations.

Discriminate one *from* another, *between* two.

Disgusted *with* a person, *at*, *with*, or *by* a thing.

Disqualified *for* a position, *from* holding office.

Dissent *from*.

Distinguish *from* another, *between* two.

Divest *of*.

Divide *between* two, *among* several, *with* others.

Dwell *in* a house or a city, *at* a place, *on* a street or a farm.

Embark *at* a place, *in* business, *for* profit or a place.

Embellished *by* an artist, *with* or *by* engravings.

Emulous *of*.

Enamored *of*.

Enervate *on*, *upon*.

Equivalent *to*.

Expel *from*, *out of*.

Expert *at* when followed by a noun, *in* when followed by a participle.

Expose *to* loss or danger, *for* sale.

Familiar *to* me, I am familiar *with*.

Favored *by* a person, *with* entertainment.

Fight *with* another, *against* foes, *for* a principle.

Followed *by*.

Founded *in* truth, or *upon*
a basis.

Free *from*.

Frown *at* a person, *on* conduct.

Frugal *of*.

Glad *of* something gained,
of or *at* what befalls another.

Graduate *at* or *from* an institution, *in* a class.

Grateful *to* a person, *for* a favor.

Ill *of*.

Illustrated *by* an artist, *with*
or *by* cuts.

Impatient *with* a person, *at*
his conduct, *of* restraint, *under*
misfortune, *for* something
wanted.

Incorporate *with* (to combine),
into (to take into).

Incumbent *on*, *upon*.

Independent *of*.

Indulge *with* a single thing
or act, *in* something habitual.

Inquire *of* the person asked,
after or *about* the subject of inquiry,
into when search is made
for particular knowledge.

Insensible *to*.

Inseparable *from*.

Insist *on*, *upon*.

Introduce *to* a person, *into* a
place.

Involve *in*.

Jealous *of*.

Join *to* something greater,
with something equal.

Killed *by* an enemy, *with* an
instrument.

Lean *on* or *against* a support,
to an opinion.

Live *at* a village or a foreign
city, *in* a city or the country.

Long *after*, *for*.

Marry *to*.

Martyr *for* or *to* a cause, *to* a
disease.

Need *of*.

Notice *of*.

Observance *of*.

Opinion *on*, *about*.

Part *from* persons, *with* be-
longings.

Pay *for* something, *to* a person,
with money.

Placed *in*, *on*.

Preferable *to*.

Prevail *on*, *upon*, or *with* (to
persuade), *against* (to overcome).

Profit *by*.

Pronounce *against* a person,
on a thing.

Protect others *from*, ourselves
against.

Provide *for*, *against*, *with*.

Put *into*, *in* (place).

Reconciled *with* a person, *to*
a condition.

Reduce *to* a state, *under* sub-
jection.

Regret *for*.

Rejoice *with* a person, *at* or
in good news.

Relieve <i>from</i> restraint or anxiety, <i>of</i> property.	Struggle <i>with</i> an adversary, <i>for</i> an object desired.
Rely <i>on</i> , <i>upon</i> .	Suspected <i>of</i> a fault, <i>by</i> a person.
Remedy <i>for</i> , <i>against</i> .	Suitable <i>to</i> one's station, <i>for</i> a purpose.
Remonstrate <i>with</i> a person, <i>against</i> a proceeding.	Swerve <i>from</i> .
Resemblance <i>to</i> each other, <i>between</i> two.	Sympathize <i>with</i> a person, <i>in</i> one's sorrow.
Reside <i>at</i> a village, <i>in</i> a city or the country.	Think <i>of</i> , <i>on</i> , <i>about</i> .
Restrain <i>from</i> .	Thirst <i>for</i> , <i>after</i> .
Rid <i>of</i> .	Trust <i>in</i> (to have confidence in), <i>to</i> (to depend on).
Search <i>for</i> or <i>after</i> a person, <i>into</i> particulars, <i>out</i> the truth.	Unite <i>to</i> (transitive), <i>with</i> (intransitive).
Seized <i>by</i> an enemy, <i>with</i> illness.	Useful <i>to</i> a person, <i>for</i> a purpose.
Smile <i>on</i> or <i>upon</i> favorably, <i>at</i> unfavorably.	Unworthy <i>of</i> .
Speak <i>to</i> an audience, <i>to</i> or <i>with</i> a person, <i>on</i> or <i>about</i> a subject.	Vest <i>in</i> a person, <i>with</i> a thing.
Strive <i>with</i> a person, <i>for</i> an object, <i>against</i> an obstacle.	Vexed <i>with</i> a person, <i>at</i> conduct.
	Wait <i>on</i> a person (to serve), <i>at</i> a table, <i>for</i> what is expected.

Errors in the Use of Prepositions.

Based *in* [on] the great self-evident truths of liberty and equality.—*Scholar's Manual*.

Looked at *in* [from] this point of view, we cannot refuse to regard them as organisms of some peculiar and amazing kind.—*Smiles*.

I think it must have been *to* [from] some such primitive explanation of the whooping-cough that there has grown up in Austria the unique custom of treating that disease by administering the rod.—*M. D. Conway: Francis May*.

He has not been averse *from* [to] a moderate quantity of good, sound, fruity port.—*G. A. Sala*.

Politics, as he makes even Demosthenes admit, *are* [is] the

sad refuge of restless minds, averse *from* [to] business and *from* [to] study.—*Leslie Stephen*.

This brings to my mind another instance of the same nature, where our English poet, by not attending to the peculiar expression of his author, has given us a picture of a very different kind *than* [from] what Homer intended.—*Fitz Osborne*.

The seventeenth century evidently had a different notion of books and women *than* [from] that which flourishes in the nineteenth.—*Pall Mall Gazette*.

CONJUNCTIONS.

Conjunctions are used to connect either words, phrases, or sentences.

Care must be taken, however, that they connect like parts; thus, a word with a word, a phrase with a phrase, or a clause with a clause; and in connecting words, the words must be of the same parts of speech, a verb with a verb, an adjective with an adjective, etc.; but a noun may be connected with a pronoun.

Elements of equal rank are connected by what are known as coördinate conjunctions, *and*, *also*, *but*, *yet*, etc.

A modifying clause is connected with the principal clause by means of a subordinate conjunction; as, "He will attend, *that* he may learn."

A modifying clause may be connected with the principal clause also by a relative pronoun or by a conjunctive adverb.

The subordinate clause always modifies some word or words in the principal clause.

Sometimes conjunctions, or conjunctions with other parts of speech, are used in pairs to mark the sense more clearly. These pairs are known as *correlatives*.

The chief correlatives are—

Both and : “*Both teacher and pupils were tired.*”

Either or : “*Nouns are either common or proper.*”

Neither nor : “*Men are neither wholly good nor wholly bad.*”

Whether or : “*I care not whether you go or stay.*”

If then : “*If this be treason, then make the most of it.*”

Though yet : “*Though deep, yet clear.*”

Such (adj.) that (conj.), to express a consequence: “*His conduct was such that all will see the wrong.*”

As (adv.) as (conj.), to express equality: “*My chances are as good as yours.*”

As (conj.) so (adv.), to express equality: “*As the teacher is, so is the school.*”

So (adv.) as (conj.), to deny equality: “*You are not so young as you were.*”

So (adv.) as (conj.), to express a comparison: “*How can you be so base as to lie?*”

So (adv.) that (conj.), to express a consequence: “*So live that you may be fearless of consequences.*”

So (adv.) as (adv.), with an infinitive following, to express a consequence: “*We ought so to read as to make ourselves distinctly understood.*”

Not only but (conj.), when the latter term of comparison includes the former: “*Not only Pennsylvania but the whole nation is interested in this question.*”

Not only but also (conj.), or but even (conj.), when the latter term of comparison does not include the former: “*Not only Pennsylvania but also Delaware is west of the Delaware river;*” “*Not only the children but even the teachers were frightened.*”

When several words are taken together to form a conjunction, the combination is known as a complex conjunction.

The principal complex conjunctions are—

as if,	but also,	but likewise,
as well as,	but even,	even though,
forasmuch as,	but that,	except that.
inasmuch as,		

The conjunction *that* is sometimes used merely to introduce a subordinate clause which is made the subject of the sentence; as, "That you have been deceived, is very clear."

The conjunction *as* is often used to unite words that are in apposition; as, "*His* work as a *teacher* was satisfactory;" "He offered *himself* as *clerk*;" "This *gentleman* as my *friend* will protect me."

The expression *as follow* is used by many where the antecedent is a noun in the plural number; thus, "His words are as follow."—*Spectator*. In such sentences the meaning probably is "as they follow;" or if *as* is regarded as a relative pronoun, it may be taken in the plural, and the word *follow* properly agree with it in the plural. Many writers, however, claim that the singular verb should be used, and the expression read "as follows," meaning *as it follows*.

Occasionally the conjunction *that* is understood; as, "The truth is (that) we have been badly treated."

After *than* or *as*, when connecting the terms of a comparison, there is usually an ellipsis of some word or words; as, "He is older than I (am)."

The sentence, "He gave me more than you," shows the necessity of supplying the omitted words to make the sentence clear, as it may mean "He gave me more than he gave you," or "He gave me more than you gave me."

As to the expression "than whom," *Lennie's Grammar*, 1830, says, "When *who* immediately follows *than*, it is used improperly in the objective case; as, 'Alfred,

than whom a greater king never reigned ;'—*than whom* is not grammatical. It ought to be *than who*, because *who* is in the nominative to *was* understood. It is true that some of our best writers have used *other* phrases which we have rejected as ungrammatical ; then why not reject this too ?" Why not ?

Professor Fowler, an authority of note, says with regard to the expression, "Satan, *than whom* none higher sat," that it should be "Satan, *than who* none higher sat."

When two terms connected are to be completed in sense by a third, they must be so expressed as to make sense with it. Thus, "He has made changes and additions to his house," should be "He has made changes in his house and additions to it."

Two terms connected by a conjunction should be the same in kind or quality rather than different. Thus, "The help was prompt and cheerfully given," should be "The help was prompt and cheerful," or "The help was prompt, and it was cheerfully given."

After *also*, *other*, *otherwise*, *rather*, and other English comparatives, the latter term of an exclusive comparison should be introduced by the conjunction *than*. Thus, "There were no others *than* these ;" "His speech was nothing else *than* deception."

Relative pronouns being connectives, they exclude conjunctions, unless there are two or more relative clauses to be connected. The following sentence is faulty : "The principal and distinguishing excellence of Virgil, *and which* he possesses beyond all poets, is tenderness." It should read, "The principal and distinguishing excellence of Virgil, an excellence which he possesses beyond all other poets, is tenderness."

After expressions denoting doubt, fear, or denial, *that*

should be used instead of *but*, *but that*, or *lest*; as, "I doubt not *that* you will succeed."

It is correct to use the words *but also* only where the words *but in addition* could be substituted.

Errors in the use of the proper correlative of *not only* are frequent even with reputable writers.

Errors in the Use of Conjunctions.

I have and pretend to be a tolerable judge.—*Shakespeare*.

He was more beloved but not so much admired as Cinthio.—*Addison*.

The Court of Chancery frequently mitigates, and breaks the teeth of the common law.—*Spectator*.

Antony, coming alongside of her ship, entered it without seeing or being seen by her.—*Goldsmith's Greece*.

Composition is excellent, and (it is) the vital principle in all these things.—*Dr. Lieber*.

To have [having] only one time, or measure, is not much better than having none at all.—*Blair*.

Facts too well known and (too) obvious to be insisted on.—*Blair*.

I cannot doubt *but that* [that] these objects are really what they appear to be.—*Kames' Elements of Criticism*.

We've both the field and honor won;

The foe is profligate, and (he has) run.—*Hudibras*.

I question not *but* [that] my reader will be pleased with it.—*Spectator*.

I doubt not *but* [that] such objections as these will be made.—*Locke*.

The terms rich *or* [and] poor enter not into their language.—*Robertson's America*.

There being no other dictator here *but* [than] use.—*Campbell's Rhetoric*.

Many of Lord Jeffrey's reviews are little else *but* [than] special pleading.—*Tuckerman*.

I have no doubt *but that* [that] the pistol is a relic of the buccaneers.—*W. Irving*.

Their relation, therefore, is not otherwise to be ascertained *but* [than] by their place.—*Campbell's Rhetoric*.

There is no other method of teaching that of which one is ignorant *but* [than], by means of something already known.—*Dr. Johnson*.

O fairest flower, no sooner blown *but* [than] blasted.—*Milton*.

As if religion were intended

For nothing else *but* [than] to be mended.—*Hudibras*.

About the time of Solon, the Athenian legislator, the custom is said to have been introduced, *and which* still prevails, of writing in lines from left to right.—*Jamieson's Rhetoric*. [Change to "The custom of writing in lines from left to right, which still prevails, is said to have been introduced."]

Conversation with such *who* [as] know no arts which polish life.—*Spectator*.

For the torrent of the voice left neither time *or* [nor] power in the organs to shape the words properly.—*Sheridan's Elocution*.

Its influence is likely to be considerable in the morals and (in the) taste of a nation.—*Blair's Rhetoric*.

Whether the subject be of the real or (the) figurative kind.—*Blair*.

Bruce spoke of himself and his compeers as being neither Scottish *or* [nor] English, but Norman barons.—*Scott*.

It is perhaps the finest of all Juvenal's satires, the mightiest, the sternest, and (the) most deeply impressed, *not merely by a sense* [by a sense not merely] of bitterness, but (also) of the deep responsibility of life.—*Westminster Review*.

The author has sat at the feet of our Elizabethan dramatists, and in one or two places *has caught not merely* [has not merely caught] their idioms and phrases, but has (also) become imbued with something of their manner of spirit.—*Idem*.

Homer was *not only the maker of a nation* [the maker not only of a nation], but (also) of a language and of a religion.—*Athenæum*.

The result is *not pleasant to us only* [pleasant to us not only] because it fulfills our predictions, but (also) because any other would have been productive of infinite mischief.—*Spectator*.

Its almost vulgar personality may convey to those who are *neither acquainted* [acquainted neither] with the writer *or* [nor with] his books.—*Quarterly Review*.

The hardship is that in these times we can *neither speak of kings or queens* [speak neither of kings nor of queens] without suspicion of politics or personalities.—*Byron*.

But he was *neither fitted* [fitted neither] by abilities nor by disposition to answer the wishes of his mother.—*Miss Austen*.

Taking the Thackeray gallery as a whole, we cannot admit *that either in qualities of* [that in qualities of either] head or heart his women are inferior to the women we generally meet.—*North British Review*.

The engraving is *neither like* [like neither] me nor the picture.—*Miss Mitford*.

Neither our vices *or* [nor] our virtues are all our own.—*Dr. Johnson*.

This is consistent neither with logic nor (with) history.—*The Dial*.

Whilst they are learning and *apply* [applying] themselves with attention, they are to be kept in a good humor.—*Locke*.

He firmly refused to make use of any other voice *but* [than] his own.—*Goldsmith's Greece*.

Your marching regiments, Sir, will not make the guards their example, either as soldiers or (as) subjects.—*Junius*.

WORDS USED AS DIFFERENT PARTS OF SPEECH.

It is a well settled principle of Grammar that use determines the classification of a word.

The following are some of the most important words whose classification varies according to the use of the word:

As is a *conjunction* when it means *since* or *because*; thus, "*As* he was ambitious, I slew him."

It is an *adverb* when it represents time, degree, or manner; as, "He came *as* soon as he could;" "I fared *as* well as I expected."

It is a *conjunctive adverb* when it introduces a subordinate clause; as, "They went out *as* we came in."

Before, After, Till, Until, are *adverbs*, or rather *conjunctive adverbs*, when they introduce subordinate clauses; as, "Think *before* you speak;" "They came *after* we had gone." "We waited *until* the meeting closed."

They are *prepositions* when used to show relation, and they should be followed by a noun or a pronoun in the objective case; as, "We stood *before* him;" "The dog ran *after* the rabbit;" "The storm delayed us *till* night."

Both may be either an adjective or a conjunction.

1. It is an *adjective* when it is used to limit a noun; as, "*Both* men earned their wages."

2. It is a *conjunction* when it is used with *and* to connect sentences or parts of sentences; as, "They were *both* tired *and* hungry."

But may be a preposition, an adverb, or a conjunction.

1. It is a *preposition* when it means *except*; as, "Whence all *but* him had fled."

2. It is an *adverb* when it means *only*; as, "I have made the trip *but* once."

3. It is a *conjunction* when it connects sentences or parts of sentences; as, "It is not he *but* you that are to blame."

But implies some opposition or exception. *Yet* and *however* are nearly equivalent, but are milder in their application. *Nevertheless*, while having a meaning similar to *but*, is a much stronger term.

Either and **Neither** are used as pronominal adjectives and as conjunctions.

1. They are used as *pronominal adjectives* when they limit or represent nouns; as, "*Neither* man answered;" "*Either* boy may help."

2. They are *conjunctions* when they assist in connecting sentences; as, "*Either* you or your brothers should come;" "*Neither* the man nor his son was here."

The proper correlative of *either* is *or*, and of *neither*, *nor*.

As adjectives, *either* and *neither* are in use limited to two. When more than two are referred to, *any one* or *none* should be made to take the place of *either* or *neither*. Thus, we say "*Either* of the two," but "*Any one* of the five;" so also, "*Neither* of the two;" but "*None* of the three."

Either as an adjective may imply "each of two;" as, "A farm on *either* side of the railroad;" that is, two farms, one on each side of the railroad. "A farm on *both* sides of the railroad" means one farm through which the railroad passes.

As conjunctions, *either* and *neither* may be used with any number; as, "*Neither* man, woman, nor child was spared from an attack of the dread disease."

For may be either a conjunction or a preposition.

1. It is a *conjunction* when it means *because*, or is used in giving a reason; as, "Let us return, *for* it is getting late."

2. It is a *preposition* when it is followed by a noun or a pronoun in the objective case; as, "He bought the book *for* me."

The three words, *for*, *because*, and *since*, are to some extent interchangeable. *Because* means "by the cause of," and had originally a reference to physical cause. It is now used chiefly to express a reason, especially in answer to *why*. *Since* is less formal than "because," and in its conjunctive sense is usually placed at the beginning of a sentence. The difference in the words is illustrated in the following sentences: "We will not go

because the day is too cold." " *Since* the day is so cold, we will not go."

Like may be used as a noun, as a verb, as an adjective, and as a conjunctive adverb.

1. It is a *noun* when it is used as a name; as, "*Like* begets *like*;" "We shall never look upon his *like* again."

2. It is a *verb* when it expresses action; as, "I *like* the music;" "I *like* order."

3. It is an *adjective* when it modifies a noun, or when it compares objects; as, "The girl is *like* her mother."

4. It is a *conjunctive adverb* when it compares actions or connects clauses; as, "She sings *like* an angel;" "He fights *like* a tiger."

Since may be a conjunction, a preposition, or an adverb.

1. It is a *conjunction* when it means *for the reason that*; as, "*Since* you wish it, I will remain."

2. It is a *preposition* when it is followed by a noun in the objective case denoting time; as, "We have had no rain *since* June."

3. It is an *adverb* in all other cases.

That may be a conjunction, a relative pronoun, or a pronominal adjective.

1. It is a *conjunction* when it is used to introduce a subordinate clause or connect sentences; as, "I believe *that* we shall succeed;" "*That* we shall succeed is certain."

2. It is a *relative pronoun* when it is used instead of "who" or "which;" as, "This is the first one *that* came."

3. It is a *pronominal adjective* when it limits or represents a noun; as, "*That* knife is mine;" "*That* is my knife."

Then may be used as a conjunction or as an adverb.

1. It is used as a *conjunction* when it means "therefore" or "in that case;" as, "If this be treason, *then* make the most of it."

2. It is an *adverb* when it denotes time; as, "It was *then* too late to correct the mistake."

What may be a relative pronoun, an interrogative pronoun, a pronominal adjective, an adverb, or an interjection.

1. It is a *relative pronoun* when "that which" or "those which" may be substituted; as, "We know *what* he wished to say."

2. It is an *interrogative pronoun* when it is used to ask a question; as, "*What* have you brought?"

3. It is a *pronominal adjective* when it limits a noun; as, "*What* beautiful flowers these are!"

4. It is an *adverb* when it means "partly;" as, "*What* by threats and *what* by stratagem we succeeded."

5. It is an *interjection* when used to express surprise; as, "*What!* Shall we give up without a contest?"

Sometimes *what* is used both as a pronominal adjective and as a relative pronoun, when it limits a noun and at the same time "that which" or "those which" may be substituted for it; as, "*What* money we had was useless."

Well may be a noun, a verb, an adjective, an adverb, or an interjection.

1. It is a *noun* when it denotes an object; as, "The *well* is deep."

2. It is a *verb* when it expresses action; as, "The water *wells* out from under the rocks."

3. It is an *adjective* when it is used to limit a noun or a pronoun; as, "The boy is *well*."

4. It is an *adverb* when it limits a verb; as, "That was *well* done."

5. It is an *interjection* when used as an exclamation; as, "*Well, well!* This is an important affair."

Well as an adverb is sometimes used independently to introduce a sentence; as, "*Well*, shall we start?"

While may be a noun, a verb, or an adverb.

1. It is a *noun* when it means a portion of time; as, "Let us sit here for a *while*."

2. It is a *verb* when it means to "spend" or "pass;" as, "We fished to *while* away the time."

3. It is a *conjunctive* adverb when it means *during the time in which*, or is used to connect clauses; as, "They were attentive *while* the teacher spoke."

Yet may be either a conjunction or an adverb.

1. It is a *conjunction* when it means *nevertheless* or *notwithstanding*; as, "Though he slay me, *yet* will I trust in him."

2. It is an adverb when it means *thus far*, *in addition*, or *at the present time*; as, "We have not *yet* completed our work."

PUNCTUATION.

PUNCTUATION treats of the use of points in dividing written composition. It is essentially a grammatical process.

The chief use of punctuation is to divide discourse into sentences, and sentences into parts, in such a manner as will best show the relation of these parts to one another.

Usage differs somewhat among authors of good repute with regard to the use of some of the marks of punctuation, but that is more the fault of the authors than of the system, and it ought not to be quoted as an argument against punctuation.

There is of course much left to individual judgment, just as there is in determining the meaning of a sentence, but it is equally true that the punctuation of a sentence frequently determines its meaning.

The chief marks of punctuation are—

1. The Period (.)
2. The Comma (,)
3. The Semicolon (;)
4. The Colon (:)
5. The Interrogation Point (?)
6. The Exclamation Point (!)
7. The Dash (—)
8. Marks of Parenthesis ()
9. Quotation Marks (“ ”)
10. The Hyphen (—)

In addition to these there are a few other marks used by writers and printers, which will be explained farther on.

THE PERIOD.

The **Period** was the first punctuation mark introduced, and was used originally to indicate the completion of a sentence.

The following are the chief rules for the use of the Period:

1. **Complete Sentences.**—*A period should be placed after every declarative or imperative sentence.*

When long compound sentences are broken up into shorter ones, each of these shorter sentences should be followed by a period.

Sometimes a conjunction, as *and* or *but*, is used to introduce a sentence, but it has no effect on the punctuation. A familiar example is—

“And Moses spake unto the children of Israel.”

2. **Abbreviations.**—*A period should be placed after every abbreviated word.*

Some abbreviated words consist of initials only, as U. S. Grant for Ulysses Simpson Grant. In such cases the period should follow each initial.

Letters are sometimes used in mathematics to indicate angles, lines, etc. These are not abbreviations, and they take no period after them. We speak of them as the angle A, the angle ABC, or the line CD, but in no case where so used do they require a period.

Sometimes letters are used also to represent fictitious persons in the statement of mathematical problems; as, “Mr. A bought a farm,” etc. In such cases no period is necessary.

When the Roman numerals are used to denote numbers, a period is usually placed after the combination; as, Geo. III., Chap. XVI., A. D., MDCLII., though it may be remarked that some late writers omit the period.

When letters are doubled to indicate the plural, as ll. for lines, pp. for pages, MM. for Messieurs, LL. for legum, only one period is placed after the abbreviation.

When the abbreviated word closes the sentence, but one period is used. Thus, "Our neighbor is James Hodgson, M. D."

When the abbreviations represent separate words, a period follows each; as, Post Master, P. M., Doctor of Medicine, M. D., Master of Arts, A. M., Doctor of Laws, LL.D.

When abbreviated words become current as abridged words in good use, as *cab* for cabriolet, *consols* for consolidated annuities, no period is required after them.

When an abbreviated name becomes a nickname, as Ben, Dan, Will, Sue, no period is used.

Ordinal adjectives, as 2d, 3d, 4th, 6th, etc., are not abbreviations, but substituted forms for second, third, fourth, sixth, etc. No period therefore should be placed after them.

Note that 2d, 3d, and all words ending with these forms, as 22d, 23d, 42d, 43d, etc., end with *d* only, not *nd* or *rd*.

3. Complete Expressions.—*A period should be placed after each Heading, Title, Signature, Imprint, or Advertisement, when the expression is complete in itself.*

The title-page of a book usually consists of three parts: 1. The name of the book; 2. The name of the author, with his professional titles appended; 3. The name of the publisher, with the place of publication.

Each of these parts should be followed by a period. A practice has lately become fashionable to omit periods altogether from title-pages, but it is wholly without literary authority.

4. Numbers of Paragraphs.—*A period should follow each figure or letter indicating the number of the paragraph, the sentence, or the particular heading. Thus,*

Some of the chief marks of punctuation are—

1. The Period,
2. The Comma,
3. The Semicolon.

THE COMMA.

The **Comma** is used to mark the least degree of separation in the divisions of a sentence. The words *comma*, *semicolon*, and *colon* were originally used to denote the portion of the sentence cut off rather than the mark.

The following are the chief rules for the use of the Comma:

1. Compound Sentences.—*A comma is used to separate the members of a compound sentence when the degree of separation is slight. Thus,*

“There was an abundance of game, but we had no gun.”

2. Relative Clauses.—*Relative clauses which are explanatory or which present an additional thought are set off by commas, but when such a clause is restrictive it is not separated from the chief clause by a comma.*

A restrictive clause is one that limits its antecedent to some particular meaning, while a non-restrictive clause is equivalent to an additional thought. Thus, in the sentence, “The man who is industrious will succeed,” the clause “who is industrious” is restrictive, the sentence being equivalent to “The *industrious* man will suc-

ceed." In the sentence, "Mr. Sharp, *who is an industrious man*, will succeed," the clause in italics simply adds an additional thought with regard to Mr. Sharp, and it is therefore non-restrictive. It may be dropped from the sentence without destroying the sense of the principal clause; thus, "Mr. Sharp will succeed."

In the sentence, "The man who is industrious will succeed," the restrictive clause limits the meaning not only to "man," but to a particular man, "The man who is industrious."

If several words intervene between a relative pronoun and its grammatical antecedent, a comma should be placed before the relative clause. Thus,

"He will be most likely to win success, who is most faithful."

If a relative pronoun is followed by a word or a phrase enclosed by commas, a comma should be placed before the relative clause even when this clause is restrictive. Thus,

"They, who, notwithstanding the fact that they were strangers, defended us, merited our gratitude."

When the relative has for its antecedent several nouns or clauses in succession, it should be separated from the last by a comma, even though the relative be restrictive. Thus,

"There were present laborers, merchants, and professional men, who doubted the arguments of the speaker."

If the comma were omitted after the word "men," the sentence could be construed to mean that only the professional men doubted.

3. Dependent Clauses.—*Dependent clauses are usually set off by commas, especially when they precede independent clauses.* Thus,

"If you wish to win, you must struggle."

A dependent clause is one that modifies or completes the meaning of another clause. It is usually introduced by some coördinate conjunction or a conjunctive adverb, and it often precedes the clause on which it depends.

When the dependent clause follows that on which it depends, in many cases it is not set off by a comma; as, "We will remain if you do not object."

When the dependent clause follows that on which it depends, and is introduced by "that," it is not set off by a comma unless "that" is equivalent to "in order that," and is placed at some distance from the verb. Thus,

a. "I believe that it will rain."

b. "I shall listen to his arguments, that I may come to a conclusion for myself."

4. **Parenthetical Expressions.** — *Parenthetical words and phrases should be set off by commas.*

Expressions are parenthetical when they are placed between the related parts of a sentence, but are not strictly essential to its meaning.

The following are among the expressions commonly used parenthetically:

Accordingly,	finally,	moreover,	then,
doubtless,	however,	namely,	therefore,
consequently,	indeed,	perhaps,	too.
After all,	in fact,	in the mean time,	
as it were,	in short,	now and then,	
as it happens,	in a word,	in reality,	
beyond question,	in truth,	on the contrary,	
for the most part,	in general,	on the other hand,	
generally speaking,	no doubt,	without doubt,	
in the first place,	of course,	you know.	

When one of these parenthetical expressions occurs

at the beginning or at the end of a sentence, only a single comma is used to separate the expression from the main part of the sentence.

When any of these same expressions are used to modify some particular part of the sentence, they lose their parenthetical character, and are no longer set off by commas. Observe the use of the word *however* in the following:

- a. "You will, however, be late."
- b. "However, you will be late."
- c. "He will do the work however late he may be."

Some words, known variously as expletives, independent adverbs, etc., as *now*, *why*, *well*, *yes*, *no*, *again*, *first*, *secondly*, *further*, etc., when they stand at the beginning of a sentence, are set off by commas. Thus,

- "First, let me make a statement."
- "Well, we are ready to go."
- "Why, that I cannot answer."

When *now* and *then* or *here* and *there* are used to introduce contrasted expressions, they are set off by commas. Thus,

- "*Now*, all is peace; *then*, all was disorder."

5. Intermediate Expressions.—*Clauses and other expressions not of a parenthetical character, but so placed as to come between the essential parts of a sentence, are set off by commas.* Thus,

- "Man, even in his lowest estate, is a noble work."

In general, commas may set off any of these intermediate expressions when they can be removed without destroying the sense of the sentence. Thus, in the sentence, "Physical exercise, especially in the open air, is of great importance to health," the expression "espe-

cially in the open air" may be removed, and the remainder, "Physical exercise is of great importance to health," still conveys the chief thought without any modification.

6. Transposed Elements.—*Transposed phrases and clauses are usually set off by commas.* Thus,

"Of the many odd people I have encountered, he was the oddest."

A comma is placed after a surname when it precedes the Christian name; as, Lindsey, George W.; Barker, R. S.

This arrangement of names is frequently made in alphabetical order in lists and indexes for convenience of reference.

When in transposed elements the connection is very close, the comma may be omitted; as, "At noon we started on our journey."

7. Series.—*In a series of more than two words, all being the same part of speech, a comma should follow each word of the series.* Thus,

"The air, the earth, the water, teem with life."

When the conjunction is omitted between the last two words of a series, a comma is placed after the last unless it is followed by a single word; as, "Teacher, pupils, friends, have gone."

When the conjunction is omitted between all except the last two words of the series, a comma is usually put before the conjunction, but some writers omit it. The following is the usual form: "Days, months, and years have fled."

When the words in a series are connected by con-

junctions the comma may be omitted; as, "Days and months and years have fled."

In some cases where a greater pause than usual is desired, both conjunctions and commas are used; as, "They suffered, and fought, and died, in their country's cause."

In such expressions as "A beautiful little rose," no comma is used to separate the adjectives, for the reason that the first adjective seems to modify all that follows; but where the successive adjectives all modify the noun with equal force, they are separated by commas, as in the following: "A hard-working, faithful, honest old man."

8. Words in Pairs.—*When words are used in pairs a comma should be placed after each pair.* Thus,

"Houses and lands, offices and honors, gold and bonds, are nothing to the man at Death's door."

9. Words in Apposition.—*Words in apposition, together with their adjuncts, are set off by commas.* Thus,

"Milton, the author of 'Paradise Lost,' was blind."

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When the noun in apposition stands alone or has only an article before it, no comma is required between it and the word with which it is in apposition. Thus,

"Paul the apostle;" "The poet Whittier."

When several words contain a description of some person or thing, if the name be mentioned it should be set off from the rest of the sentence by a comma; as, "The greatest of poets, Homer, was blind."

10. Words in the Vocative.—*Nouns in the Nominative Case Independent by address, with their accompanying*

words, are separated from the rest of the sentence by commas. Thus,

“Gentlemen, are you ready to hear me?”

“I am, my dear Sir, your friend.”

This rule is applicable to the salutation in a letter. Thus,

Dear Father,

Your letter has been received.

Dear Mr. Smith,

Your letter, etc.

Dear Sir,

Your letter is at hand.

My dear Sir,

I wrote to you yesterday.

Whatever the salutation, it seems proper to place a comma after the title on the ground that the title, with its modifying adjectives, is in the nominative case independent by address.

When the body of a letter begins on the same line as the salutation, the comma is followed by a dash. Thus,

My dear Sir,—Your letter reached me, etc.

11. The Absolute Construction.—A word placed in the Nominative Case Absolute is, with its accompanying

words, separated from the rest of the sentence by a comma. Thus,

"Peace having been declared, the army was disbanded."

12. Omission of the Verb.—*When in a compound sentence the verb is omitted in any of the members following the first, a comma takes its place.* Thus,

"Homer was the greater genius; Virgil, the better artist."

13. Logical Subject.—*When the logical or complex subject of a sentence ends with a verb of the same form as the predicate verb, or consists of parts subdivided by commas, it is separated from the predicate by a comma; as,*

"He who breaks, pays."

"Bananas, oranges, and figs, are the chief exports."

14. Quotations.—*A quotation or anything resembling a quotation, introduced into a sentence, should be preceded by a comma.* Thus,

"Bacon says, 'Knowledge is power.'"

"The question now is, Where shall we find a desirable site?"

If the quotation depends directly on the word which precedes it, no comma is required. Thus,

"The cry of 'Down with the traitors!' rang through the hall."

15. Numeral Figures.—*When any numbers except dates are expressed by more than three characters, they are separated by commas into groups of three, counting from the right.* Thus,

"The amount on hand is \$16,437,842."

16. Ambiguity.—*A comma is sometimes used to prevent ambiguity.*

Thus, "I awoke and called my brother to me," without the comma means that I awoke my brother and called him to me. With the comma, "I awoke, and

called my brother to me," means that I became awake and called my brother to me.

THE SEMICOLON.

The **Semicolon** is used to separate parts of sentences less closely connected than those separated by commas. It is used also to separate the divisions when the subdivisions are separated by commas.

The following are the principal rules for the use of the Semicolon :

1. **Parts of Sentences.**—*A semicolon should be placed between the parts of a sentence when the subdivisions of these parts are separated by commas.* Thus,

“Without dividing, he destroyed party; without corrupting, he made a venal age unanimous.”

When the members of a sentence are long, they are sometimes separated by a semicolon though no comma is used. Thus,

“Errors like straws upon the surface flow;
He who would seek for pearls must dive below.”

Some writers would in the foregoing set off the expression “like straws” with commas, but this is unnecessary. The golden rule in punctuation is to use a punctuation mark only where there is a necessity for it in order to make the meaning clear.

2. **A General Term.**—*A general term having several particulars in apposition may be separated from the particulars by a semicolon.* Thus,

Nouns in English have three cases; Nominative, Possessive, and Objective.

3. **Short Sentences.**—*Short sentences which have a*

slight dependence on one another as to meaning, are usually separated by semicolons. Thus,

“There is good for the good ; there is virtue for the virtuous ; there is victory for the valiant ; there is spirituality for the spiritual.”

In the application of this rule usage differs somewhat. Some writers prefer the colon, and others the period, instead of the semicolon, but the best usage favors the semicolon.

4. Successive Clauses.—*A semicolon is used to separate several successive clauses in a complex sentence when they have a common dependence on a principal clause. Thus,*

“When my heart shall have ceased to throb ; when my life shall have passed away ; when my body shall have been consigned to the tomb,—then shall all these things be remembered in my favor.”

Some writers prefer to separate the principal clause from the others by a colon, and the others from one another by a comma and a dash.

5. Additional Clauses.—*An additional clause which assigns a reason, draws an inference, or presents a contrast, may be set off by a semicolon. Thus,*

“Straws float upon the surface ; but pearls lie at the bottom of the stream.”

When the additional clause follows without the use of a connecting word, some writers use a colon instead of a semicolon.

Namely, for, but, yet, are some of the words commonly used for connecting an additional clause to express a reason or a contrast.

6. Before As.—*A semicolon should be placed before “as” when it introduces an example. Thus,*

“A noun is a name; as, boy, Henry.”

A semicolon is sometimes used before *viz.*, *to wit*, *i. e.*, or *that is*, when it precedes an example or an enumeration of particulars.

7. **Yes and No.**—“*Yes*” or “*no*,” when forming part of an answer and followed by a proposition, is usually set off by a semicolon. Thus,

“Yes; I think it will rain.”

When *yes* or *no* precedes a vocative expression, the semicolon follows the expression, and a comma follows *yes* or *no*. Thus,

“No, my friends; I cannot endorse this platform.”

THE COLON.

The **Colon** is used to separate parts of sentences less closely connected than those separated by the semicolon.

The following are the most important rules for the use of the Colon:

1. **Parts of Sentences.**—*A colon should be placed between the parts of sentences whose subdivisions are separated by semicolons.* Thus,

“The article contained two chief thoughts: the first, that the argument was not sound; the second, that it was not convincing.”

2. **Additional Clauses.**—*An additional clause not formally connected with the preceding clause is set off from the latter by a colon.* Thus,

“Let others hail the rising sun:
I bow to him whose course is run.”

This rule differs from Rule 5 with reference to the

semicolon, chiefly in the omission of the conjunction which formally connects the clauses.

3. **Quotations.**—*When a quotation is introduced, but not as the object of a transitive verb, it should be preceded by a colon.* Thus,

“For of all sad words of tongue or pen,
The saddest are these: ‘It might have been.’”

When a quotation follows such transitive verbs as *say, exclaim, reply, shout, cry*, and similar verbs, as the direct object, it should be preceded by a comma instead of a colon. Thus,

“The speaker said, ‘Gentlemen, I am glad to meet you on this occasion.’”

4. **Formal Introduction.**—*A colon is placed after such expressions as “this,” “these,” “as follows,” “the following,” and similar terms, when they promise or introduce something, whether a quotation or not.* Thus,

“His words were as follows: ‘Poor work, poor pay.’”

5. **Title-Pages.**—*In a title-page, when an explanatory expression is put in apposition with the main title, without the use of a conjunction, the two are separated by a colon.* Thus,

“Helps in the Use of Good English: a Manual for All who Desire to Speak or Write Correct English.”

THE INTERROGATION POINT.

The **Interrogation Point** is used to show that a question is asked.

The following are the chief rules for the use of the **Interrogation Point**:

1. **Questions.**—*An interrogation point should be placed after every direct question.*

A direct question is one that admits of an answer; as, "Why do you not go?" An indirect question is one that is merely spoken of; as, "He asked why you did not go."

When several questions are thrown together to form one sentence, the sentence begins with a capital letter, but an interrogation point should follow each question. Thus,

"What is the meaning of all this noise? of all this confusion?"

When, in a series of consecutive questions, each is distinct in itself, each should begin with a capital letter and each be followed by an interrogation point. Thus,

"Does the applicant use profane language?" "Does he smoke?" "Does he idle away his time?"

When the question is not complete till the end of the sentence is reached, only one interrogation point should be used. Thus,

"Which season do you prefer, summer or winter?"

2. **Doubt.**—*The interrogation point is sometimes inserted in curves to throw doubt on a statement.* Thus,

"His sound (?) logic was not convincing."

THE EXCLAMATION POINT.

The **Exclamation Point** is used chiefly to indicate some emotion.

The following are the chief rules for the use of the Exclamation Point:

1. **Interjections.**—*The exclamation point is placed after an interjection when it shows strong emotion.* Thus,

"Hurrah! we have won the game."

When the emotion expressed belongs to the whole phrase or sentence, the exclamation point is usually placed after the entire expression, rather than after the interjection; as, "Shame upon your actions!"

When an interjection is repeated several times in succession, the repeated words are separated by commas, and the exclamation point is placed after the last only; as, "Well, well! I am sorry for this."

O is not immediately followed by an exclamation point, but *oh* is so followed unless the emotion runs through the whole expression. In that case *oh* is followed by a comma, and an exclamation point is placed after the complete emotional expression. Thus,

"Oh, long may it wave
O'er the land of the free, and the home of the brave!"

When the interjections *eh* and *hey* are used at the end of questions, they should be followed by interrogation points.

2. Exclamations.—*An exclamation point should be placed after every exclamatory expression.* Thus,

"How very hot it is!"

"Glorious! Bravo!" shouted the captain."

More than one exclamation point may be used to express wonder, irony, contempt, or great surprise. Thus,

"Trust to his honesty!! A thief is honest in comparison."

The exclamation point is sometimes used in the same manner as the interrogation point, to imply doubt. Thus,

"Cæsar was an honorable (!) man."

THE DASH.

The **Dash** is used chiefly to indicate a sudden change in the sense or the construction of a sentence.

The use of the dash for other punctuation marks is permissible only where none of the others can be correctly used. The dash should not be used, as it is by many writers, as a substitute for other marks.

The following are the chief rules for the use of the Dash :

1. **Sudden Changes.**—*A dash is used to mark some sudden change in the construction or in the sense of a sentence.* Thus,

“He had no malice in his mind—
No ruffles on his shirt.”

2. **Parenthesis.**—*The dash is sometimes used to set off parenthetical expressions when the connection is not so close as to require a comma.* Thus,

“Those who hated him most heartily—and no man was hated more heartily—admitted that his mind was exceedingly brilliant.”

3. **A Pause.**—*The dash is sometimes used to indicate a pause made for rhetorical effect.* Thus,

“It was admitted by all that the boy was quiet and well-behaved—when he was asleep.”

The dash is used also to denote an expressive pause. Thus,

“The stream fell over a precipice—paused—fell—paused again—then darted down the valley.”

4. **An Omission.**—*The dash is sometimes used to denote an omission.* Thus,

“Late in the summer of 18—, the residents of —— were

greatly agitated over a rumor that a railroad was to be built through the town."

"See Chap. VI.: 1-5," meaning Chap. VI., verses 1, 2, 3, 4, 5.

5. Summing-Up.—*The dash is used to denote a summing-up of particulars.* Thus,

"Relatives, friends, home,—all are gone."

6. Repetition.—*When a word or an expression is repeated emphatically for rhetorical effect, the construction beginning anew, a dash should be placed before each repetition.* Thus,

"I wish," said Uncle Toby, with a deep sigh—"I wish, Trim, I were asleep."

7. Reflex Apposition.—*When words at the end of a sentence stand detached and are in apposition with preceding parts of a sentence, they are separated from the preceding portion by a dash.* Thus,

"Three of the world's greatest poems are epics—Paradise Lost, The Æneid, and The Iliad."

8. Titles Run In.—*When a title or a heading, instead of standing over a paragraph, is run in so as to make a part of the paragraph, it is separated from the rest of the line by a dash.* For illustration see the heading of this rule.

9. Dialogues.—*The parts of a conversation or a dialogue, if run into one paragraph instead of forming separate paragraphs, are separated by dashes.* Thus,

"Good morning, Mr. Brooks."—"Good morning, Sir."—"I hope you are well."—"Thank you, I am very well; how are you?"

10. With Other Marks.—*A dash is often placed after other marks to add effect.*

The following are the chief instances:

a. After a side-head. Thus,

“Remark 1.—”

b. Between the end of a paragraph and the name of the author if both are placed on the same line. Thus,

“Procrastination is the thief of time.”—*Young*.

c. Between short quotations brought together in the same line, as in example under Rule 9.

MARKS OF PARENTHESIS.

The **Curves**, or **Marks of Parenthesis**, are used to enclose such words as break the unity of a sentence and have little, if any, connection with the remaining part of it. Thus,

“To gain a posthumous reputation is to save four or five letters (for what is a name beside) from oblivion.”

The sentence containing marks of parenthesis is punctuated as if no parenthetical part were included.

Whatever point may be needed is placed after the last curve, unless some other mark precedes the last curve, in which case the point is placed before the first curve. Thus,

a. “Pride, in some disguise or other (often a secret to the proud man himself), is the most ordinary spring of action among men.”

b. “While we all desire fame, (and should we not desire it?) we should do nothing unfair to gain it.”

The part within the curves is punctuated according to the usual rules, just as if no curves were used.

QUOTATION MARKS.

A *quotation* is the introduction into one's discourse of words uttered or written by some one else.

Quotation Marks are two inverted commas at the beginning, and two apostrophes at the close, of the part quoted.

The following are the rules for the use of Quotation Marks :

1. **Direct Quotations.**—*Quotation marks are used to enclose a direct quotation.* Thus,

Everett says, "If we retrench the wages of the schoolmaster, we must raise those of the recruiting sergeant."

When other words occur between the parts of the quoted expression, only the quoted words are enclosed by the marks. Thus,

"We can overcome the difficulty," said the speaker, "by persistent effort."

When the quotation is not direct, no quotation marks are needed. Observe the following :

a. Bacon said, "Knowledge is power."

b. Bacon said that knowledge is power.

2. **A Quotation within a Quotation.**—*When one quotation is included within another, the included quotation is enclosed with single quotation marks.* Thus,

These were Longfellow's words :

"Life is real, life is earnest;
And the grave is not the goal;
'Dust thou art, to dust returnest,'
Was not spoken of the soul."

If a quotation included within a quotation contains another included quotation, the latter is enclosed in double quotation marks. Thus,

I found the following: "Some one has said, 'What a world of wisdom is contained in the poet's words, "The grave is not the goal."'"

Notice that the number of quotation marks at the end must balance those which begin the quotations.

3. Quoted Paragraphs.—*When a number of quoted paragraphs come in succession, the inverted commas precede each paragraph, but the closing quotation marks follow the last paragraph only.*

When a quotation is made, the quotation marks should enclose the usual punctuation marks as well as the words.

Observe the difference in the following :

- a. His remark was, "Why did you not go?"
- b. Was his remark, "Must you go" or "Will you go"?

The first sentence embraces a quoted question; the second is a question itself, and therefore is followed by an interrogation point.

Examples for illustration are sometimes enclosed in quotation marks. Thus,

The word "in" is sometimes an adverb.

THE HYPHEN.

The chief uses of the hyphen will be found discussed in connection with the subject of Syllabication, pp. 30-34.

OTHER MARKS.

The following are the most important of the other marks used in written and printed discourse. Most of them are used only by printers and proof-readers.

Brackets [] are used to enclose some word or words necessary to correct an error or afford an explanation; as,

"They [the Puritans] came direct from Holland."

Brackets are sometimes used in dictionaries and works

on language to enclose the pronunciation or the etymology of a word; as, *Belles Lettres* [bel let'r].

Brackets are used also in dialogues, dramas, etc., to enclose instructions to the actors.

The **Apostrophe** ['] is used to indicate the omission of letters or figures—

1. To form contractions; as, *doesn't* for does not, *don't* for do not, *isn't* for is not, *e'er* for ever, *o'er* for over, etc.

2. To form plurals; as, 6's, + 's, S's, instead of 6es, +es, Ses.

3. To indicate the possessive form of a noun; as, *king's*, *queen's*, *widow's*, etc., the old forms having been *kyngis*, *queenis*, *widdowes*, etc.

4. To indicate the century figures in the case of dates; as, '97 for 1897.

The **Ellipsis**, [***], [. . . .], [—], is used to show that letters or words have been omitted; as, President C—d, for President Cleveland, or Mrs. G***n, for Mrs. Green.


The **Section** [§] denotes the smaller divisions of a book or a chapter.

The **Paragraph** [¶], now rarely used, denotes the beginning of a new paragraph or a new subject.

The **Caret** [^] is used in writing to show that some-

thing is to be inserted; as, "Mr. Gry will remain with us
a
a week."
^

The Caret should always be placed below the line and the correction immediately above it.

The **Index** [,] is used to point out something special.

The **Brace** [{]} is used to connect two or more terms with another term; as, Pupils { Boys, 23.
Girls, 27.

The **Ditto Mark** [“] is used to indicate that the words above it are to be repeated; as,

2 pr. Shoes,	@ \$2.50	\$5.00
6 “ “	@ 3.00	18.00

It is not correct to use the ditto mark to indicate the repetition of the names of persons. The following is incorrect:

Mary S. Evans,
 Susan B. “
 Samuel S. Miles,
 “ G. Conser.

The name in either case should be written in full.

The **Cedilla** [ç], used in printing, and placed under the letter *c*, gives that letter the sound of *s*, as in façade.

The **Tilde** [~], placed over the letter *n*, shows that the *n* is equivalent to *n* and *y*, as in cañon [canyon].

The **Diæresis** [¨], placed over the second of two successive similar vowels, shows that they belong to different syllables, as in “zoölogy,” “coördinate.”

The **Macron** [¯], placed over a vowel, shows that the vowel has the long sound; as, “āle,” “fīre.”

The **Breve** [˘], placed over a vowel, shows that the vowel has the short sound; as, “ăt,” “fĭt.”

The **Asterisk** [*], the **Dagger** [†], the **Double Dagger** [‡], the **Section** [§], the **Parallels** [||], and the **Paragraph** [¶], are generally used to refer to marginal notes. Sometimes figures and letters of the alphabet are used for the same purpose.

Leaders are dots used to carry the eye from the words at the beginning of the line to something at the end of it. Thus,‡

Spelling	page 44
Syllabication	“ 83

BOOK NOTES.

The **Title-page** of a book is that page of the book which contains the title. It is usually the first page.

Running Titles, or **Headlines**, are placed at the tops of the successive pages, and are used to show the name of the book, the subject treated of on the page, or both.

Captions, or **Sub-heads**, are headings placed over chapters or sections; they stand in the body of the page, not at the top.

Side-heads are titles run into the line or made a part of it.

A **Frontispiece** is a picture placed opposite the title-page, and facing it.

A **Vignette** is a small picture, not occupying a full page, but placed among other matter either on the title-page or in some other part of the book.

In preparing manuscript for printing, one line (——) should be drawn under such words as are to be put in *italics*; two lines (====) under such as are to be printed in **SMALL CAPITALS**; and three lines (=====) under such as are to be printed in **LARGE CAPITALS**. A waved line (~~~~) is placed under words that are to be printed in **bold-faced** type.

Italics should be used sparingly. Inexperienced writers generally use underscored words too freely to indicate emphatic words.

Leads are thin plates of type-metal by which lines are spaced apart. Matter spaced in this way is said to be *lead*ed.

Composing, as a part of the printer's work, is setting up the type. The work itself is called *composition*.

The quantity of printed matter is counted by *ems*. An *em* is the square of the body of the type used.

A CORRECTED PROOF-SHEET.

OLIVER WENDELL HOLMES.

Sc Dr. Holmes has been likened to Thomas *Q*
ea hood, but there is little in common between *P*
i/ them, save the power of combining fancy *S*
 and sentiment with grotesque drollery and
 humor. Hood [^] under all his whims and */*
 oddities, conceals the vehement inten [^] sity *c*
 of a reformer. The iron of the World's *l. c.*
 wrongs has entered into his soul. There
 # is an undertone of sorrow in his lyrics. His
 x [^] sarcasm directed against oppression and big- *—*
 otry, at times betrays the earnestness of one
 whose ~~own~~ withers have been wrung. *Ital.*
 □ [^] Holmes writes for simply the amusement of *u.*
No ¶ himself and his readers. [^]
 [He deals only with the vanities, the foi-
 bles, and the minor faults of mankind, good [^] */-/*
 naturedly and almost sympathizingly sug-
 gesting excuses for folly, which he tosses */*
 about on the horns of ridicule. Long may *o*
Rom. he live to make broader the face of our care-
 ridden generation, and to realize for himself
 the truth of the wise man's declaration that *i'*
 "A merry heart is a continual feast."

J. G. Whittier.*Ital.*

EXPLANATION OF PROOF-MARKS.

Q is a mark showing an inverted letter.

℄ (*Dele*) means take away.

× indicates a broken letter.

— directs less space between words.

⌒ over oe and æ indicates that they are to be printed œ or æ.

indicates that a space is needed where a caret, Λ, is put.

⊖ directs that all space be taken out.

⊥ indicates that a space stands up.

[shows that a word or a line is to be moved toward the face of the bracket, whichever way turned.

¶ denotes that a new paragraph is to be made.

..... placed under letters or words erased indicate that they are to be restored. The word *Set* is placed in the margin.

tr. Transpose words or letters. Sometimes the letters are written correctly in the margin instead of using *tr.*

w.f. shows that the type is of the wrong font, too large or too small.

l.c. (lower case) directs that a small letter be substituted for the capital letter used.

Λ, the caret, is used to denote where an inserted correction is to be made.

□ shows that the word before which it is placed should be set in.

Rom. means change to Roman letters.

Ital. means change to Italic letters.

✓ shows where an apostrophe, quotation marks, or references, as indicated in the margin, should be placed.

No ¶ or *No break* shows that a new paragraph is not to be made.

When a query is made on the proof-sheet, if the author desires the correction to be made, he erases the (?) or *Qy.* If he does not wish the change made, he erases both the *Qy.* and the correction.

When several words have been left out, they may be written at the bottom of the page, and a line be drawn from them to the caret indicating the omission.

SIZES OF BOOKS.

The terms 8vo, 12mo, 16mo, 24mo, etc., indicate the number of leaves into which a printed sheet is folded.

A book is called a *Folio* when the sheets on which it is printed are folded so as to make two leaves.

In a *Quarto*, or 4to, each sheet makes four leaves.

In an *Octavo*, or 8vo, a sheet makes eight leaves; in a *Duodecimo*, or 12mo, twelve leaves, and so on.

Inasmuch as sheets of printing paper now vary in size, the terms octavo, duodecimo, etc., do not indicate definitely the size of the printed page.

LETTER-WRITING.

A LETTER consists properly of the following parts:

1. The Heading,
2. The Introduction,
3. The Body,
4. The Conclusion,
5. The Superscription.

The mechanical part of a letter should receive due attention. The appearance of a letter sometimes exercises more influence than the sentiment which it contains. This is especially true of letters of courtesy.

THE HEADING.

The **Heading** of a letter consists of the name of the place at which the letter was written and the date when it was written.

When a letter is written from a large city, the first line of the heading should include the door-number, the name of the street, and the names of the city and the state. The date should occupy the second line. Thus,

1060 Chestnut St., Philadelphia, Pa.,
Oct. 16, 1896.

When one does not care to have his residence known, or is not permanently located, the number of the post-

office box may be given instead of the door-number. Thus,

Box 1258, Philadelphia, Pa.,

Oct. 16, 1876.

In a letter written from the country, or from a village or a small town, the county as well as the state should be mentioned. Thus,

Berwyn, Chester Co., Pa.,

Nov. 5, 1876.

If the letter be written from a school or a prominent hotel, the name of the institution or the hotel may occupy the first line of the heading, in which case the heading may occupy three lines, as follows:

State Normal School,

Millersville, Pa.,

Nov. 5, 1876.

Or,

State Normal School,

Millersville, Pa., Nov. 5, 1876.

Figures are employed only for the door-number, the day of the month, the year, and the number of the post-office box.

When the heading is short, it usually occupies but one line. Thus,

Lancaster, Pa., Aug. 1, 1874.

When the heading occupies more than one line, each line should begin a little farther to the right than the preceding line, as in the foregoing examples.

The first line should begin a little to the left of the middle of the page.

Every important part of the heading should begin with a capital letter.

A period should follow every abbreviation, and the parts should be separated by commas. A period should be placed also at the end of the heading.

The **Date** consists of the month, the day of the month, and the year. The day of the month is separated from the year by a comma.

In writing the date, either the cardinal or the ordinal form may be used. Thus,

July 7, 1897, or July 7th, 1897.

Should the ordinal forms be used, no period must be placed after them, as they are not abbreviations.

By some writers the date is placed at the close of the letter. In such cases it begins near the left edge of the page, and on the line below that on which the signature is placed. In such cases, also, the name of the person to whom the letter is written must appear in the introduction.

Business-men sometimes use figures to denote the number of the month; as, 4/6/'96, for April 6, 1896; but this is permissible only in business letters.

THE INTRODUCTION.

The **Introduction** consists of the *formal address* and the *salutation*.

The *formal address* varies with the style of the letter.

It consists of the *name*, the *title*, and the *place of business* or the *residence* of the person addressed.

In some cases the name and the title alone are used in the address. While this is not objectionable in social letters, it is not the best form for business letters, as there would be no way of ascertaining the ownership of the letter in case it were lost or mislaid without the envelope.

Titles should not be omitted, but they should be used sparingly. It is usually sufficient to use the most prominent title of the person addressed.

The *Address* may occupy one, two, or three lines, each line followed by a comma, until the address is complete, when it should be closed with a period.

The name of the person addressed should be written plainly and in full.

Titles are prefixed as follows:

Mr. to a gentleman's name;

Messrs. (for *Messieurs*) to the names of several gentlemen addressed in the same letter;

Master to the name of a boy;

Miss to the name of an unmarried lady;

Misses to the names of several unmarried ladies addressed in the same letter;

Mrs. (mistress) to the name of a married lady or a widow;

Mesdames (mā dām') to the names of several married ladies or widows addressed in the same letter;

Dr. (plural *Drs.*) to the name of a physician;

Rev. (plural *Revs.*) to the name of a clergyman, or *Rev. Mr.* if his Christian name is unknown to you;

Rev. Dr., or *Rev.* — —, *D. D.*, if the clergyman is a doctor of divinity.

Only one title of courtesy should be affixed to a

name. Thus, it would be incorrect to write "Mr. George Johnson, Esq.," both titles meaning popularly the same thing.

In the case of married ladies, however, it is correct, according to the best usage, to affix the title of courtesy *Mrs.*, and at the same time the honorary or professional title of her husband; as, Mrs. General Grant, Mrs. Dr. Bush.

Two or more literary or professional titles may be used with the same name, provided none of them include any of the others. In such cases they should be written in the order of their importance, which is probably the order in which they were conferred, using the highest title last. Thus, "W. H. Hodson, A. M., Ph. D."

In addressing a person, it is not necessary to use all his titles if there are more than one. John P. Smith, LL.D., or Dr. John P. Smith, is quite as expressive on an envelope as John P. Smith, A. M., Ph. D., LL.D.

The *place of business or residence*, sometimes called the inside address, should give the name of the person's post-office and the state in which it is situated. Thus,

Rev. William P. White,
Oxford, Pa.

If the post-office be in a city of considerable size, the door-number and also the name of the street should be given. Thus,

Prof. Henry Johnson,
No. 324 Arch St.,
Camden, N. J.

The Salutation.—The complimentary salutation varies with the degree of formality of the letter or the position occupied by the persons addressed.

Strangers are addressed as *Sir, Madam, Rev. Sir, General*, etc., though the first two of these should be avoided as far as possible as being too stiff and formal.

Acquaintances may be addressed as *Dear Sir, Dear Madam, Dear Miss Clark*, etc., and the same forms are used generally in social and in business correspondence.

Friends are usually addressed as *Dear Friend, Dear Alice, Friend Johnson, My dear Friend*, etc.

Near Relatives and other close friends are usually addressed as *My dear Daughter, My dear Child, My dear Mary*, etc.

When addressing a firm, consisting of several persons, the term *Sirs* or *Dear Sirs*, or the word *Gentlemen*, may be used as the salutation.

Never use *Dr.* as an abbreviation of *Dear*, or *Gents.* for *Gentlemen*; neither is correct.

A *military* or a *naval officer* is saluted by his official title, as *Captain, Major, Commodore*, or by the title *Sir*.

A *Governor* is addressed as *Governor, His Excellency*, or *Sir*.

The *President* is addressed as *His Excellency*, or as *President* —.

A *married lady* or an elderly unmarried lady is addressed in business letters as *Madam, Dear Madam*, or *My dear Madam*.

In addressing a young unmarried lady, the salutation is by some omitted. Thus,

Miss Mary Atkins,

Elkton, Md.,

We beg to inform you, etc.

This form is used to avoid the repetition of the word "Miss." It would seem better, however, to address young unmarried ladies by the same term, Madam, as the married, inasmuch as the word "Miss," preceding the name, shows that the lady is unmarried.

There is no objection to the following form :

Dear Miss Walker,

Your letter of yesterday, etc.

The address is usually placed in the next line after the heading, or the next line but one. It should begin at the left side of the page near the margin, and when it occupies more than one line each line should begin a little farther to the right than the one preceding.

Sometimes the address is placed at the bottom of the letter, beginning on the line next below the signature, but at the left side of the page, in the same position as if written before the body of the letter.

The salutation should follow the address on the next line below, and should be followed by a comma because the noun is in the Nominative Case Independent by address.

When the address consists of but one line, the salutation should begin about an inch to the right of the marginal line. Thus,

Mr. George H. Bishop.

Dear Sir,

Your letter, etc.

When the address consists of two lines, the salutation should begin about an inch farther to the right than the

beginning of the second line of the address, but it may begin under the beginning of the first line. Thus,

Messrs. Jordan & Williams,

Elmira, N. Y.

Dear Sirs,

The goods sent us, etc.

When the address consists of three lines, the salutation should begin under the first letter or figure of the second line, but it may begin under the first letter of the first line. Thus,

Messrs. Evans & Co.,

262 Wabash Ave.,

Chicago.

Dear Sirs, — We have to-day sent you a draft for the amount, etc.

When there is no address preceding the salutation, the latter should begin at the marginal line. Thus,

My dear Brother,

I learned of your request when I reached home yesterday. I shall be, etc.

CAUTIONS.

Note the following cautions:

1. Separate the parts of the address by commas, and place a period at the close of the address.

2. Begin every important word of the address with a capital letter.

3. Begin the first word and every noun in the salutation with a capital letter.

4. Place a comma after the salutation unless the body of the letter begins on the same line, in which case place a comma and a dash after the salutation.

5. Do not begin any two successive lines of the heading, the introduction, the conclusion, or the superscription of a letter, at the same vertical line.

THE BODY OF THE LETTER

The **Body** of a letter is that which contains what is communicated from the writer to the person addressed.

When the introduction consists of three lines or less, the body of the letter should begin on the next line below, the first word beginning a little to the right of the first word of the preceding line. Thus,

Messrs. Sharp & Co.,

Wilmington, Del.

Dear Sirs,

Your letter is at hand, etc.

When the introduction consists of more than three lines, the body of the letter may begin on the same line as the salutation. In this case a dash should follow the comma after the salutation. Thus,

Messrs. Westcott & Thomson,
710 Filbert St.,
Philadelphia, Pa.

Gentlemen,—Enclosed you will find
an order, etc.

The body of a letter should vary in style and length according to its character. The language should be natural, and not stilted or florid. The penmanship should be neat and legible, devoid of flourishes, erasures, blots, interlineations, crosslines, and everything else that will detract from its neatness or from ease in reading it.

Business letters should be short, omitting nothing that is necessary, and avoiding all repetitions and unnecessary explanations.

The body of a letter should continue on the succeeding pages in their regular order, beginning with the first.

THE CONCLUSION.

The **Conclusion** of a letter consists of the *complimentary close* and the *signature*.

The forms of the complimentary close vary according to the relations of the writer and the person addressed, but they should always harmonize with the salutation. Thus, *Yours truly* and *Truly yours* may be used with *Dear Sir* or *Dear Madam*, or be confined to business letters. *Sincerely yours* denotes a greater degree of friendship. *Cordially yours* is a still stronger expression. To begin a letter with *My dear Friend* and close it with *Yours respectfully*, or *Yours truly*, would be a serious blunder. A letter beginning with *My dear Friend* would require

some degree of affection to be expressed in the complimentary close; as, *Your devoted friend, Faithfully yours,* or *Affectionately yours.*

Official letters close in a more formal manner. A common form is the following:

With much respect,
Your obedient servant,
A — B —.

Or the following:

Very respectfully, your obedient servant,
M — S —.

Or,

I am, Dear Sir,
Your obedient servant,
A. W. B —.

These forms, however, frequently take as substitutes “Yours respectfully” or “Very respectfully.”

Note the following cautions:

1. Never close a letter with the form “Yours, etc.”
2. In closing a letter begin each line of the complimentary close with a capital letter, but do not begin the other words with capitals. Instead of writing *Yours Very Truly*, or *Your Devoted Friend*, write *Yours very truly*, *Your devoted friend*.

The Signature.—The *Signature*, consisting of the name of the person who writes the letter, should be placed at

the bottom of the letter, immediately following the complimentary close.

In letters of importance the writer's name should be signed in full.

A letter which by accident or otherwise goes astray is sent to the Dead Letter Office, where it is opened and returned to the writer if it contains his name and address.

The signature should be plainly written. The writer should remember that while he or his friends may be able to recognize his signature, however poorly written, he has no right to puzzle others with his illegible writing.

In writing to a stranger or an inferior, it is proper for a lady to sign her name with her title prefixed. Thus,

Miss Alice B. Stetson.

Or,

(Miss) Alice B. Stetson.

Mrs. Mary M. Evans.

A married woman may use her husband's name and initials. Thus,

Mrs. George L. Barton.

A widow should use her own name and initials. Thus,

Mrs. Mary G. Barton.

THE SUPERScription.

The Superscription, or address on the envelope, consists of the name of the person to whom the letter is written, together with his proper title and post-office address.

Care should be taken to make this address plain, that the letter may not be miscarried or lost. It is said that millions of letters are sent every year to the Dead Letter Office, many of them because poorly or improperly directed.

A proper address gives the title, the name, the post-office, the county, and the state.

All the words in the superscription except prepositions and articles should begin with capital letters.

A period should follow every abbreviation, and one should be placed at the end of the complete address.

A comma should follow each line to separate the parts of the address. Thus,

Rev. Henry W. Williams, LL.D.,
1080 Chestnut St.,
Philadelphia,
Pa.

Letters addressed to a city may omit the county, but they should have the door-number and the name of the street, or the number of the post-office box.

The practice of writing the superscription in any other than a horizontal direction is not in good taste.

The superscription should begin near the middle of the envelope vertically, and usually near the left edge. The other lines should begin each a little farther to the right than its predecessor, so that the name of the state comes near the lower right-hand corner.

When a person's official designation is given in full, it forms the second line of the superscription.

Care must be taken to write the abbreviations of the

names of the states distinctly. *Pa.* and *Va.*, *Penn.* and *Tenn.*, *N. Y.* and *N. J.*, are those which are most likely to be confounded.

When the name of the county is written in the lower left-hand corner of the envelope, it should be followed by a comma, as it is fully as much a part of the address as if placed immediately above the name of the state.

INVITATIONS AND REGRETS.

An **Invitation** is a formal note of courtesy. Invitations are usually written in the third person, and when so written the answer also must be in the third person.

Answers to invitations are either *Acceptances* or *Regrets*.

An acceptance is an affirmative answer; a regret is a formal note which explains a non-acceptance.

Many invitations contain the letters R. S. V. P. at the close. These are the initials of *Repondez s'il vous plait*, meaning, "Answer, if you please."

Most invitations do not need an answer if the person intends to accept. A failure to reply is understood to be an acceptance.

An invitation to dinner or tea, however, requires a prompt answer of either acceptance or regrets.

Answers to invitations to weddings, balls, receptions, etc., should be sent not later than the third day after receiving the invitation.

The answer to an invitation should be acknowledged and addressed to the person in whose name the invitation is given. If given by a lady and a gentleman together, it should be acknowledged to both, but be addressed on the envelope to the lady.

A regret should always state, at least in general terms, the reason why the person invited cannot accept, and this statement should be as brief as possible.

One may regret that "a previous engagement," "intended absence," "sickness in the family," or some similar reason prevents acceptance.

Abbreviations are not in good taste in invitations, acceptances, or regrets. Initials may, however, be used. Thus, we may write Mr. and Mrs. G. G. Adams, but not Mr. and Mrs. Geo. G. Adams.

HINTS ON LETTER-WRITING.

Letters of introduction are usually delivered in person. They should, therefore, be left unscaled. If they are to be delivered personally, the name of the person to be introduced may be written on the lower left-hand corner of the envelope, somewhat like the following:

Introducing Mr. Geo. H. Fox.

All favors or courteous attentions that require acknowledgment should be acknowledged promptly.

Letters about one's own affairs, when requiring an answer, should contain a postage stamp or a stamped envelope for return postage.

When one has been on a visit to a friend living at some distance, he should, on returning home, write at once of his safe arrival and of his appreciation of the hospitality he enjoyed.

Social letters should never be written on foolscap paper or half sheets.

One should sign his full name in writing to a stranger.

A note written in the third person should never have the writer's signature attached.

In replying to a note written in the first person it is considered highly impolite for the one who replies to use the third person.

It is not good taste for a writer to prefix his title to his name in putting his signature to a letter.

A letter of introduction, if sent by mail, should be sealed, and contain the card of the person introduced.

Never write an anonymous letter.

IMPORTANT ABBREVIATIONS.

The following is a list of the most important abbreviations used in printing:

A. A. S., Fellow of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences.	B. A., British America.
A. B. or B. A., Bachelor of Arts.	Bart., Baronet.
A. B. C. F. M., American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions.	Bbl. or bbl., barrel, barrels.
Acct., Account.	B. C., Before Christ.
A. D., In the year of our Lord.	B. C. L., Bachelor of the Civil Law.
ad lib. (<i>ad libitum</i>), at pleasure.	B. D., Bachelor of Divinity.
Adjt., Adjutant.	Bds. or bds., Boards (bound in).
Adjt. Gen., Adjutant General.	Benj., Benjamin.
Æt. or æt., of age, aged.	B. M., Bachelor of Medicine.
Ala., Alabama.	Bp., Bishop.
Alex., Alexander.	Br. Col., British Columbia.
A. M., Before noon; Master of Arts.	Brig. Gen., Brigadier General.
And., Andrew.	Bro., Brother; Bros., Brothers.
Anon., Anonymous.	B. S., Bachelor of Science; Bachelor of Surgery.
Ans., Answer.	bu., bushel, bushels.
Arch., Archibald.	Cal., California.
Ark., Arkansas.	Can., Canada.
Art., Article.	Cant., Canticles, or Song of Solomon.
Ar. Ter., Arizona Territory.	Cap. (<i>caput</i>), Chapter.
Att'y Gen., Attorney General.	Caps., Capitals.
Aug., August; Augustus.	Capt., Captain.
	Capt. Gen., Captain General.
	Cath., Catherine.

C. B., Cape Breton ; Companion of the Bath.	do. (ditto), the same.
C. E., Canada East ; Civil Engineer.	Dr., Debtor ; Doctor.
C. or Cent., Centigrade.	D. Sc., Doctor of Science.
Cf. (<i>confer</i>), Compare.	D. V. (<i>Deo volente</i>), God willing.
C. H., Court-House.	dwt., pennyweight.
Chap., Chapter, Chapters.	E., East.
Chas., Charles.	Eccl., Ecclesiastes.
Chron., Chronicles.	Ed., Editor ; Eds., Editors.
C. J., Chief Justice.	Edm., Edmund.
Co., Company ; County.	Edw., Edward.
C. O. D., Collect on Delivery.	e. g. (<i>exempli gratia</i>), for example.
Col., Colonel.	E. I., East Indies.
Colo., Colorado.	Eliz., Elizabeth.
Com., Commander ; Commodore.	Eph., Ephraim.
Conn., Connecticut.	Esq., Esquire ; plur., Esqs.
Cor., Corinthians.	Esth., Esther.
C. P., Common Pleas.	et al. (<i>et alii</i>), and others.
ct., cent, cents.	et seq. (<i>et sequentia</i>), and following.
cu. ft., cubic feet.	etc. or &c. (<i>et cætera</i>), and so forth.
cu. in., cubic inch, cubic inches.	Ex., Example ; Exodus.
C. W., Canada West.	Exc., Exception.
cwt., hundred-weight.	Ez., Ezra.
d., days ; pence.	Ezek., Ezekiel.
Dan., Daniel.	F., Fahr., Fahrenheit.
D. C. (<i>da capo</i>), Repeat.	F. A. S., Fellow of the Antiquarian Society.
D. C., District of Columbia.	fath., fathom, fathoms.
D. C. L., Doctor of Civil Law.	Feb., February.
D. D., Doctor of Divinity.	Fig., Figure, Figures.
Dec., December.	Fla., Florida.
dec., declination.	F. M., Field Marshal.
deg., degree, degrees.	fol., folio, folios.
Del., Delaware.	Fran., Francis.
<i>Dele</i> (∂), Erase.	Fred., Frederic.
Dist. Att'y, District Attorney.	
D. M., Doctor of Music.	

ft., foot, feet.	Jam., Jamaica.
Ft., Fort.	Jan., January.
fur., furlong, furlongs.	Jas., James.
Ga., Georgia.	Jer., Jeremiah.
Gal., Galatians.	Jona., Jonathan.
gal., gallon, gallons.	Jos., Joseph.
Gen., General; Genesis.	Josh., Joshua.
Geo., George.	J. P., Justice of the Peace.
Gov., Governor.	Jr. or Jun., Junior.
Gov. Gen., Governor General.	Jud., Judith.
gr., grain, grains.	Judg., Judges.
h., hour, hours.	Kan., Kansas.
H. B. M., His or Her Britannic Majesty.	Kt., Knight.
Heb., Hebrews.	Ky., Kentucky.
hhd., hoghead, hogheads.	L., £, or l., pounds sterling.
H. M., His or Her Majesty.	La., Louisiana.
Hon., Honorable.	Lat., Latitude.
H. R. H., His Royal Highness.	lb. (<i>libra</i>), pound or pounds, in weight.
ib. or <i>ibid.</i> (<i>ibidem</i>), in the same place.	L. C., Lower Canada.
id. (<i>idem</i>), the same.	Lev., Leviticus.
Id., Idaho.	L. I., Long Island.
i. e. (<i>id est</i>), that is.	Lib. (<i>liber</i>), Book.
I. H. S. (<i>Jesus hominum Salvator</i>), Jesus, the Savior of men.	Lient., Lieutenant.
Ill., Illinois.	Lient. Col., Lieutenant Colonel.
incog. (<i>incognito</i>), unknown.	Lient. Gen., Lieutenant General.
Ind., Indiana.	Lient. Gov., Lieutenant Governor.
Ind. Ter., Indian Territory.	LL.B., Bachelor of Laws.
Insp. Gen., Inspector General.	LL.D., Doctor of Laws.
inst., instant, the present month.	Lon. or Long., Longitude.
Ia., Iowa.	L. S. (<i>locus sigilli</i>), place of the seal.
I. O. O. F., Independent Order of Odd Fellows.	M. or Mons., Monsieur.
Isa., Isaiah.	M. (<i>meridies</i>), Noon.
Jac., Jacob.	m., miles; meters.

M. A., Master of Arts.	N. B. (<i>nota bene</i>), Mark well.
Mad., Madam.	N. B., New Brunswick.
Mag., Magazine.	N. C., North Carolina.
Maj. Gen., Major General.	N. E., New England; North-east.
Mass., Massachusetts.	Neb., Nebraska.
Matt., Matthew.	Nev., Nevada.
M. B., Bachelor of Medicine.	N. F., Newfoundland.
M. C., Member of Congress.	N. H., New Hampshire.
M. D., Doctor of Medicine.	N. J., New Jersey.
Md., Maryland.	N. M., New Mexico.
Me., Maine.	N. O., New Orleans.
Mem., Memorandum, Memoranda.	No., Number; Nos., Numbers.
Messrs., Messieurs, Gentlemen.	Nov., November.
Mgr., Monsignor.	N. S., Nova Scotia.
Mich., Michigan.	Num., Numbers.
min., minutes.	N. W., Northwest.
Minn., Minnesota.	N. Y., New York.
Miss., Mississippi.	O., Ohio.
Mlle., Mademoiselle.	Oct., October.
MM., Messieurs, Gentlemen.	Ont., Ontario.
Mme., Madame.	Or., Oregon.
Mo., Missouri.	oz., ounce, ounces.
mo., month, months.	P. or p., page; pp., pages.
Mons., Monsieur.	P. E. I., Prince Edward Island.
M. P., Member of Parliament.	Pa., Pennsylvania.
Mr., Mister.	Per et., by the hundred.
Mrs., Mistress.	Ph. D., Doctor of Philosophy.
MS., Manuscript.	Pinx. (<i>Pinxit</i>), He painted it.
MSS., Manuscripts.	pk., peck, pecks.
Mt., Mount, Mountain.	P. M., Postmaster.
Mts., Mountains.	P. M. (<i>post meridiem</i>), afternoon.
Mont., Montana.	P. O., Post-Office.
Mus. B., Bachelor of Music.	Pop., Population.
Mus. D., Doctor of Music.	P. P. C. (<i>pour prendre conge</i>), to take leave.
N., North.	Pref., Preface.
N. A., North America.	
Nath., Nathaniel.	

Pres., President.	S. J., Society of Jesus.
Prof., Professor.	Sol., Solomon.
Pro tem. (<i>pro tempore</i>), for the time being.	Sol. Gen., Solicitor General.
Prov., Proverbs.	sp. gr., specific gravity.
prox. (<i>proximo</i>), the next month.	sq. ft., square foot or feet.
P. S. (<i>post scriptum</i>), Postscript.	sq. in., square inch or inches.
Ps., Psalm, Psalms.	sq. m., square mile or miles.
pt., pint, pints.	sq. rd., square rod or rods.
qt., quart, quarts.	sq. yd., square yard or yards.
q. v. (<i>quod vide</i>), which see.	SS. (<i>scilicet</i>), Namely.
Qy., Query.	St., Saint; Street; Strait.
R., R. (<i>Recipe</i>), take.	Stat., Statute, Statutes.
rd., rod, rods.	S. T. D. (<i>Sanctæ Theologiæ Doctor</i>), Doctor of Divinity.
Regt., Regiment.	Stet, Let it stand.
Rem., Remark, Remarks.	Supt., Superintendent.
Rep., Reports.	Surg. Gen., Surgeon General.
Rev., Reverend; Revelation.	Surv. Gen., Surveyor General.
R. I., Rhode Island.	S. W., Southwest.
R. N., Royal Navy.	T., ton, tons; tun, tuns.
Rom., Romans.	Tenn., Tennessee.
R. R., Railroad.	Ter., Territory.
Rt. Hon., Right Honorable.	Tex., Texas.
Rt. Rev., Right Reverend.	Theo., Theodore.
S., South.	Theoph., Theophilus.
s., seconds, shillings.	Thos., Thomas.
S. A., South America.	Tim., Timothy.
Sam., Samuel.	Treas., Treasurer.
S. C., South Carolina.	U. C., Upper Canada.
S. caps., SMALL CAPITALS.	ult. (<i>ultimo</i>), the last month.
S. E., Southeast.	U. S., United States.
sec., second, seconds.	U. S. A., United States Army.
Sect., Section, Sections.	U. S. M., United States Mail.
Sept., September.	U. S. N., United States Navy.
Ser., Series.	vs. (<i>versus</i>), against.
Serg., Sergeant.	Va., Virginia.
Serg. Maj., Sergeant Major.	V. P., Vice-President.
	vid. (<i>vide</i>), see.

viz. (<i>videlicet</i>), to wit, namely.	wk., week, weeks.
Vol., Volume; Vols., Volumes.	Wm., William.
Vt., Vermont.	Wy., Wyoming.
W., West.	W. Va., West Virginia.
Wash., Washington.	Xmas., Christmas.
W. I., West Indies.	yd., yard, yards.
Wis., Wisconsin.	y. or yr., year, years.

CHOICE OF WORDS.

NOUN SYNONYMS.

SYNONYMS are words having nearly the same meaning, with shades of difference. The following are among the most prominent synonyms, in the correct use of which the student of English should discriminate.

Acceptance, acceptation.—*Acceptance* is “the act of accepting,” or “favorable reception,” as the acceptance of an office. *Acceptation* is the sense in which a term is used; as, “In the present acceptation of the word.”

Ability, capacity.—*Ability* is one's power of doing. *Capacity* is the power of understanding, of acquiring, of containing. “The teacher has great ability as a mathematician.” “The child's capacity is limited.”

Act, action.—An *act* is a deed or a result viewed in connection with the power or will of the doer. It is never used of things mechanical. It is the simple exertion of power preceded by volition. *Action* is the process of doing. *Smith*, in “Synonyms Discriminated,” says, “The *act* denotes power; the *action* involves the mode in which the power is exercised. To speak generally, *acts* are primarily physical, and secondarily moral; *actions* are primarily moral, and secondarily physical.” An act is single; actions are continuous. “His saving of the boy's life was a noble act.” “Our character is judged by our actions.”

Adherence, adhesion.—*Adherence* expresses the moral

idea of attachment, while *adhesion* has reference to physical attachment. We speak of a man's adherence to the principles of his party or the doctrines of his church, and of the adhesion of an object fastened to another, as the bark to the body of a tree.

Admittance, admission.—*Admittance* has reference to the mere act of allowing to enter. *Admission* has reference in a moral sense to the reception with some sort of sanction. *Admittance* is local, as the admittance into a public building. *Admission* has rather the meaning of a right to admittance. "It is the right of admission that secures admittance," says Smith. "No admittance here" is correct, as is also "We gained admission to the building." There is admittance when the way is open, and admission when persons are willing to admit.

Advantage, benefit, profit.—An *advantage* is that which puts one forward, or places him in a better condition as regards society or his work; thus, "The advantages of education, culture, and wealth." *Benefit* is anything which makes the person who receives it happier or more prosperous. We may reap benefits ourselves or they may be conferred upon us. We exercise for the benefit of our health; we give to charity for the benefit of the poor. *Profit* is gain from something expended; it is always the product of our own doing, whether in action or in money, while "advantage may come to us adventitiously, and benefits may be conferred upon us."

Affliction, distress.—*Affliction* is a malady of mind or body, and is permanent. *Distress* is more mental than physical. It may be entirely independent of physical pain, and may be but temporary.

Aggressor, assailant.—An *aggressor* is one who begins a quarrel; an *assailant* is one who commits the first act of violence, as in striking the first blow.

Agreement, contract.—An *agreement* is the consent of individuals or parties with reference to certain things or on certain terms. A *contract* is a binding agreement between individuals, formally written and executed.

Amateur, novice.—An *amateur* is one who is attached to any art or science or who cultivates it. A *novice* is a beginner.

Answer, reply.—An *answer* is a word or words given in return to a question. A *reply* is a formal answer to an argument, which may be more than a mere question, as in debate the reply meets or answers certain points or arguments. *Reply* is a broader term than *answer*. We answer a question and reply to an argument.

Approbation, approval.—*Approbation* is a sentiment; *approval* is the expression of that sentiment. We entertain the approbation and express our approval.

Amount, quantity, number.—*Amount* is the total in number or quantity. *Quantity* is used in connection with anything that may be measured. *Number* is used in connection with things that may be counted.

Avocation, vocation.—An *avocation* is that in which one may be occupied or employed temporarily. One's *vocation* is his regular calling or profession. Thus, "My vocation is teaching; my avocation then was reading."

Balance, rest, remainder.—*Balance* means the difference between two sides of an account. *Rest* denotes that which is left after the separation of a part or parts, and is used in speaking of persons or things. *Remainder* is the rest under certain conditions. It is usually the smaller part which remains after the greater has been taken away; it is used only in speaking of things.

Body, corpse, carcass.—*Body* and *corpse*, as a dead body, are applied to human beings; *carcass*, only to the lower animals. *Body*, as far as the organization is con-

cerned, applies to human beings and brutes; *corpse*, to the bodies of human beings only.

Bough, branch.—A *branch* is the limb of a tree considered simply with regard to its ramifications. A *bough* is the branch invested with leaves, blossoms, or fruit. "The fruitful bough, rich with the foliage of summer and the fruit of autumn, becomes in winter the leafless branch."—*Smith*.

Brace, pair, couple.—A *pair*, meaning two, must have some likeness; a *couple* means two of the same kind united. In a pair one is often the complement of the other, as a pair of gloves, a pair of shoes. *Brace* is a technical term used by sportsmen; as, "A brace of quail."

Burial, interment.—*Burial* is simply the covering of anything to hide it, as one may bury his face in his hands. *Interment* is a word more restricted in meaning than *burial*; it involves the idea of earth or soil.

Calamity, disaster.—The word *calamity* is usually applied to such events as produce extensive evils; such as failure of crops, destructive floods, or civil war. *Disaster* is applied to such an occurrence as mars or ruins particular plans or conditions, such as losses in trade or railway accidents.

Character, reputation.—*Character* is what a person morally is. *Reputation* is the prevailing opinion with regard to a person.

Center, middle.—The *center* is a point or a definite place, as "The center of a city." The word *middle* is a less definite term than *center*; it may refer to space or time; as, "The middle of the road;" "The middle of a line;" "The middle of winter."

Choice, preference.—*Choice* denotes the act and the power of choosing. *Preference* is the exercise of choice

in reference to one or more objects. To say that one has no choice in a matter means that he has no power to choose. To say that one has no preference in a matter means that he has no prevailing inclination or choice.

Companion, associate, comrade.—A *companion* is one who goes in company with another temporarily. There need be no equality; thus, a man's companion may be his dog. An *associate* is one who is a habitual and voluntary companion on the ground of personal liking or community of feeling. A *comrade* is a companion who is made so by circumstances and not by personal choice. Thus, the students in a school or the soldiers of an army are comrades.

Compensation, remuneration.—*Compensation* is an equivalent furnished for anything parted with or lost by another. *Remuneration* is compensation for personal services done to the remunerator. One's salary or wages is therefore remuneration.

Composition, mixture.—A *mixture* is any interfusion of particles of a different nature into one mass, liquid or solid, and it may be the result of either chance or design. A *composition* is the union or mixture of parts, elements, or ingredients designedly, and according to certain proportions.

Convert, proselyte.—A *convert* is one who turns from one set of opinions to another. A *proselyte* is one who has been brought over from one religion to another. The convert has changed his views, religious or otherwise; the proselyte is one whose views on religion have been changed by the persuasion of others.

Corner, angle.—*Corner* is applied to the meeting of two solid bodies, *angle* to the meeting of mathematical lines. *Corner* refers to the point of meeting; *angle*, to the space included between the lines.

Crime, sin, misdemeanor.—A *crime* is a deed violating a law, human or divine. The word is now usually restricted to mean the violating of a civil law. A *sin* is a violation of divine law, or any law of a sacred character. A *misdemeanor* is a minor crime.

Custom, habit.—*Custom* is a frequent or habitual repetition, whether by individuals or communities. *Habit* applies to individuals only, and is the resulting effect of custom. *Custom* is voluntary; *habit* is involuntary, and sometimes unconscious.

Deception, deceit.—*Deception* is the act of deceiving. It applies to individual instances or acts of one who deceives. *Deceit* applies to the habit or quality of mind, or the trait of character; thus, we speak of “a course of deceit.”

Delivery, deliverance.—*Delivery* means a delivering to; *deliverance*, a delivering from.

Difficulty, obstacle.—The word *difficulty* is usually applied to such impediments as are complicated, and require patience to overcome. *Obstacle* is applied to such as are simple.

Disability, inability.—*Disability* expresses the absence of power from a subject capable of it; disability may be only temporary. *Inability* is the absence of power from a subject incapable of it. Disability may be removed; inability is irremediable.

End, aim.—*Aim* has reference to the immediate object, *end* to the ultimate object.

Extent, limit.—*Extent* denotes a superficial spreading in one or more directions. *Limit* is the boundary or restraint of such extent.

House, home.—A *house* is a building in which to live. *Home* is the place where one habitually lives.

Idea, thought.—An *idea* is a mental impression or

picture; thus, we have an idea of a rose; we also have an idea of red or redness. We combine these ideas and we have a *thought*; as, "The rose is red."

Impertinence, impudence, insolence.—*Impertinence* has reference to the meddling with matters in which the meddler has no concern. *Impudence* is an unblushing assurance accompanied with a disregard of the presence or rights of others. *Insolence* is applied to the unbridled exhibition of impudence or pride, to the disregard of the feelings of others. "Impertinence is no respecter of propriety; impudence, no respecter of delicacy; insolence, no respecter of persons."

Intellect, mind.—*Intellect* is used to denote the thinking power of the mind, including perception, memory, imagination, understanding, and intuition. *Mind* includes not only the intellect, but also the sensibilities and the will.

Intention, purpose.—*Intention* is a general setting of the mind on doing a thing. *Purpose* is stronger than intention, indicating a resolution to be carried out. *Intention* is incipient volition, *purpose* is decisive.

Invention, discovery.—*Invention* is the making of a combination of ideas a reality for the first time. A *discovery* is the finding out of something heretofore existing but unknown. Thus, we invent machines and processes; we discover elements, causes, and truths.

Judgment, discernment.—*Judgment* is the power or faculty which decides accurately in practical matters. *Discernment* is combined keenness and accuracy of mental vision. Discernment regards differences rather than things, but judgment is concerned with the things themselves.

Limb, member.—In human anatomy *limb* is the term applied to the arms and the legs, *member* is the term ap-

plied to any organ or part of the body which performs a distinct office, as the tongue, the eye.

Majority, plurality.—A *majority* is more than half of the whole number. A *plurality* is the excess of votes given to any candidate over the next highest. It is a majority when there are but two candidates, but not necessarily so when there are more than two. Thus, in a hundred votes cast, fifty-one or upward is a majority; but if three candidates receive respectively forty, thirty-six, and twenty-four votes, the candidate receiving forty votes has a plurality, but not a majority.

Melody, harmony.—*Melody* is a rhythmical succession of single sounds so as to form a musical thought. Popularly it is known as the tune. *Harmony* is a concord of two or more musical strains. In hymns and other musical selections, the melody usually is one of the strains.

Memory, remembrance, recollection.—*Memory* is that mental faculty by which we retain and reproduce a knowledge of past thoughts or events. It includes *remembrance*, the power of retaining knowledge, and *recollection*, the power of recalling knowledge. Strictly speaking, the following, “Do you remember my name?” means only “Do you hold my name in memory?” What the speaker means to imply is “Do you recall my name?” That is, “Do you *recollect* my name?” We *remember* anything that may be recalled either now or in the future, though we may not be able to recollect it when we wish. The word usually in demand is “recollect;” as, “I recollect when it was thought impossible to send news by telegraph.”

Negligence, neglect.—*Negligence* is applied to the habit; *neglect*, to an act or a succession of acts.

Novice, novitiate.—A *novice* is a beginner, or one

who is new in any business or calling. *Novitiate* denotes the state or the time of being a novice.

Observance, observation.—*Observance* is the due or proper rendering of a formal or practical recognition to rule, law, custom, or occasion; as, our observance of the Sabbath, our observance of law or of the principles of truth. *Observation* has reference to an act of close contemplation, with a view of becoming acquainted with the object, as the observation of an eclipse.

Opinion, sentiment.—An *opinion* is purely intellectual, and is the result of a judgment on the subjects of science, argument, facts, principles, or occurrences. *Sentiment* has to do only with matters of feeling.

Part, portion.—*Part* is the general term, meaning that which is less than the whole. *Portion* is generally used with some suggestion of allotment. Thus, a *portion* of land is a quantity in which one or more persons are interested.

Proceeding, procedure.—A *proceeding* is a complex action whose steps or stages may be distinguished separately. *Procedure* is the act or manner of proceeding. Thus, we may say, "The proceedings were interesting." "His method of procedure was approved."

Proposal, proposition.—A *proposal* is something put forth or laid down for acceptance or rejection by another. A *proposition* is simply a statement, an affirmation, or a denial. Smith, in *Synonyms Discriminated*, suggests a further difference as follows: "*Proposition* being used for something to be deliberated upon; *proposal*, something to be done." In general, it is better to say "I have a proposal to make," rather than "a proposition to make."

Reason, cause.—A *reason* is that which accounts for a conclusion. It is the *why* we believe as we do. *Cause*

is that which produces an effect. The cause gives the physical account; the reason, the logical or metaphysical.

Receipt, reception.—The word *receipt* is used when money or other objects are taken into possession. *Reception* applies to persons and to such objects as are connected with sentiment on the part of the giver. The following are correct forms: "A receipt for the goods was given;" "The reception of the favor won our gratitude;" "The speaker met with a warm reception."

Relative, relation.—A *relative* is one who is connected with another by blood or marriage. The word *relation* was so used formerly, but it is now confined mostly to its abstract sense; as, "What are his relations to the congregation?" "What relation is Mr. Strong to you?"

Requirement, requisite.—A *requirement* is something required by a person or persons. A *requisite* is something needed by the nature of the case to give completeness. Thus, "The requirements of candidates for the position are of a high order;" "One of the requisites to success is a good character."

Sewage, sewerage.—*Sewage* is the contents of sewers. *Sewerage* has reference to the system employed in carrying sewage.

ADJECTIVE SYNONYMS.

Acid, sour.—*Acid* and *sour* express different degrees of the same quality. *Acid* is a concentrated corrosive sourness; *sour* refers to a milder form of acidity. Lemon juice is acid, buttermilk is sour.

Active, busy.—*Active* expresses a tendency to employment. *Busy* means simply closely or diligently employed. To be active implies energy; to be busy implies attention to one's work.

Adjacent, adjoining, contiguous.—*Adjacent* means lying near, without touching. *Adjoining* means touching at a single point. *Contiguous* means touching at one or more sides.

Abundant, copious, plentiful.—*Abundant* is used without reference to the source, but with reference to the quantity of the supply; as, “An abundance of money.” *Copious* means an abundant giving forth; as, “A copious stream.” *Plentiful* is similar in meaning to abundant, but it is limited more strictly to physical things. We may speak of a plentiful or an abundant harvest, but not of a plentiful cause for gratitude.

Artful, deceitful, designing.—The original meaning of *artful* was simply “full of art,” in the sense of contrivance. But the word now has reference to the use of such means for one’s own purpose as are hidden from the observation of others. *Deceitful* has reference to a more deliberate purpose of leading others astray. One may be artful and yet not deceitful. The man who stands and looks intently at the top of a tree along the street, and thereby draws a curious crowd, may be called artful, but he is not necessarily deceitful. The deceitful man is ready, if necessary, to resort to falsehood to gain his end. *Designing* denotes the exercise of artful conduct with the specific purpose of securing certain results. The designing man is always laying plans for the purpose of accomplishing some end in the future.

Authentic, genuine.—*Authentic* means having authority. *Genuine* means real or true as opposed to what is spurious. A document is authentic when it relates facts and may be relied upon as being true and authoritative. It is genuine when it is the production of a person whose name it bears as author.

Beautiful, handsome.—The word *handsome* is applied

to persons, to certain objects, and to moral acts. *Beautiful* is applied to persons and other objects of either sight or sound. Thus, we speak of "a handsome man," "handsome conduct," "a handsome horse." We speak also of "a beautiful woman," "a beautiful melody," "a beautiful landscape." *Handsome* may be applied to men or women; horses, dogs, or other animals; trees, houses, and parks; but not to landscapes, views, or prospects. *Handsome* is rarely applied to physical objects of small size; these are *pretty* or *beautiful*.

Beneficent, generous, benevolent, liberal. — *Beneficent* denotes largeness of bounty, as the outflow of great kindness combined with great power. The word is now restricted almost wholly to Divine giving. *Generous* denotes a mental disposition to give whether one has the means or not. It applies to forgiving as well as to giving. *Liberal* denotes a character which gives largely when it gives. It makes no definite estimates as to what is needed, but aims to give enough. In conduct it considers favorable as well as unfavorable constructions, and rather gives them the preference. *Benevolent* has reference to the person rather than to the act. A benevolent man will give when he can. In character he will avoid doing injury, and aim to benefit where he finds it possible.

Brave, bold.—*Brave* applies to the readiness to meet such dangers as come from living or active opponents whose power is to be dreaded. The stopping of a runaway horse is a brave act, so also is the saving of a person from drowning or from being burned to death. *Bold* refers to a readiness or pretended readiness to meet danger, rather than to the conduct when the danger comes. A man may be bold in his threats against an enemy, but when he runs away he is not brave.

Bright, brilliant.—*Brilliant* is a stronger term than bright. *Bright* is used in a variety of meanings,—shedding light, reflecting light, etc. *Brilliant* is shining with intense or sparkling brightness which shines with a changeful play.

Ceremonial, ceremonious.—*Ceremonial* is applied to external rites, or public ceremony. *Ceremonious* is applied in its present sense to dealing overmuch in conventional forms between individuals.

Clean, cleanly.—*Clean* means free from filth or that which is foul. In a moral sense it means that which is free from evil. *Cleanly* denotes a disposition to be physically clean. It has reference to the habit.

Close, near.—*Close* is a more definite term than *near*. Houses or persons are close when they almost touch; they may be near and yet be separated by a moderate distance.

Competent, qualified.—One is *qualified* for a task when, either by training or otherwise, he has a special aptitude for the work. He is *competent* when he has simply the natural powers, to which such subsequent training may be given as will make him qualified.

Complete, entire, whole.—*Entire* and *whole* are in many cases interchangeable. An entire set of furniture and a whole set of furniture mean the same thing. *Whole*, however, applies to what is made up of parts. Therefore, where the idea is such that the thing which it represents cannot be divided into parts, the proper word is *entire*, as in “entire confidence,” “entire care.” *Complete* denotes the presence or possession of all that is needful to constitute a thing. An object is entire when not broken or mutilated; it is complete when it lacks nothing.

Corporal, corporeal.—*Corporal* relates to the substance

of the body; *corporeal*, to the nature of the body. We speak of "corporal punishment" and of our "corporeal existence."

Diffident, bashful, modest, reserved.—*Diffidence* is the positive distrust of one's self. *Modesty* is the absence of any tendency to over-estimate one's self. *Bashfulness* is excessive or extreme modesty. *Reserve* is a keeping to one's self. Sometimes it becomes faulty when it approaches too nearly to pride.

Docile, tractable.—*Docile* denotes the actual quality of meekness. *Tractable* denotes the absence of refractoriness. A docile child is easily taught and managed; a tractable child may be taught and governed by proper attention.

Doubtful, uncertain.—*Doubtful* is used in the sense of entertaining a doubt or admitting a doubt. *Uncertain* simply expresses a lack of sufficient knowledge to decide. "It is doubtful whether we shall win, for it is uncertain how many votes will be cast."

Eager, earnest.—*Eager* denotes an excited desire and intentness in the pursuit of some object; as, "Children eager to see;" "Hounds eager in the chase." *Earnest* is always used in a good sense, and refers to the steadiness and energy of an occupation or a habit.

Eligible, desirable.—*Eligible* means worthy of being chosen, or qualified to be chosen. *Desirable* is broader in its application. It relates to any kind of choice, as of possession, conduct, or anything that is to be wished for; as, "a desirable residence," "desirable associates," "desirable absence of noise."

Endemic, epidemic.—An *epidemic* disease is one in which the cause acts on a large number of people at the same time. An *endemic* disease is one that is peculiar to the people of a particular nation or community, its ori-

gin being connected with the local conditions or the personal habits of those among whom it occurs.

Enormous, huge, vast.—*Huge* denotes great size, with massiveness predominating over proportion. *Enormous* is huge of its particular kind; thus, an apple five inches in diameter would not be huge, but it would be an enormous apple. *Vast* has reference to the quality of great superficial area, as vast prairies and huge mountains.

Envious, jealous.—*Envious* denotes a feeling of unhappiness caused by the contemplation of any good enjoyed by another. *Jealous* indicates envy mixed with rivalry. One is jealous of another when the latter stands in some relation to a third which the former desires to occupy. Nations as well as individuals may be jealous.

Equal, equable.—*Equal* is applicable to number, degree, or measurement of things fixed. *Equable* denotes the quality of continuous proportion, and is applied to action or movement. Thus, we say a vessel sails an equable, not an equal, rate when it sails as great a distance in any hour as in the preceding.

Equal, equivalent.—*Equal* denotes that two things agree in anything that is capable of degree, as number, value, quality. *Equivalent* means equal in such proportions as affect ourselves, or the use we make of things, as value, force, effect.

Extraordinary, remarkable.—*Extraordinary* denotes that which is out of or beyond the ordinary. It is sometimes equivalent to the word *remarkable*, or that which causes remark, but it cannot be used as equivalent to remarkable except when the subject contemplated excites remark.

Extravagant, prodigal.—*Extravagant* denotes a wandering beyond. One may be extravagant in the expenditure of money, in speech, in compliments. *Prodigal*

indicates a love of large and excessive expenditures. A poor man may be extravagant, but he is prevented by his poverty from being prodigal.

Female, feminine, effeminate.—*Female* is applied to sex as opposed to male. *Feminine* indicates that which is characteristic of females, as opposed to masculine. *Effeminate* applies to those actions or characteristics of men which would be more appropriate to women. We speak of “female dress,” “feminine accomplishments,” “effeminate actions.”

Garrulous, loquacious, talkative.—*Garrulous* denotes being unduly talkative, especially about others’ affairs rather than our own. *Talkative* implies a desire to engage in talk with others as well as to others. *Loquacious* denotes the habit of talking continuously.

Gentle, mild, meek.—*Gentle* originally denoted well-born. It indicates refinement and quietness of nature. It is applicable to animals, and, by analogy, to external forces and influences. We may speak not only of a gentleman, but also of gentle lambs, gentle breezes, and the like. *Mild* implies subdued but not deteriorated energy, as “mild air,” which might be harsh; “mild expression,” “mild disposition.” *Meek* differs from *mild* and *gentle* in never being applied to conduct, but only to the temper or character. A meek person is one who submits to wrong rather than combat it.

Gratuitous, voluntary.—*Gratuitous* means given without recompense, or without proof. A gratuitous assertion is one without proof; a gratuitous affront, one that is unmerited or uncalled-for. *Voluntary* means by the consent of one’s will; that is, not done under compulsion. Many acts are done voluntarily that are not done willingly.

Great, big, large.—*Big* gives the impression of relative

bulk; as, a big fish, a big mountain. *Large* applies chiefly to relative width or capacity; as, a large building, one that is capacious. *Great* may be used not only with regard to size or number, but with regard to anything that may exist in degree; as, "a great noise," "a great address," "a great battle." A great soldier may not be a large soldier, nor a large soldier a great one. Number, quantity, and extent are represented as *large*. Power, knowledge, strength, wisdom, and such abstract qualities as ignorance, weakness, and folly, with their opposites, may be represented as *great*.

Hard, difficult.—*Hard* expresses in a general way what *difficult* expresses in a more refined and particular way. Any work of the body or the mind which seems to resist our efforts may be said to be *hard*. That which is *difficult* presents a kind of hardness which requires some mental aptitude, as well as work and perseverance, to overcome. Many occupations are not difficult, but they require hard work. The process of solving a problem may not be hard work, but it is often difficult. We therefore speak correctly of difficult questions and difficult problems instead of hard problems and hard questions.

Hideous, shocking.—*Hideous* primarily denoted that which is frightful to behold, but is now extended also to noises. That which is *shocking* acts with a sudden effect. The *hideous* contradicts beauty and is lasting; the *shocking* contradicts morality and is temporary.

Lawful, legal.—*Lawful* denotes "in accordance with law, whether civil or moral." *Legal* denotes conformity to civil law, the law of the land.

Little, small.—*Little* is a general term, and applies to quantity as well as size; as, "little attention;" "a little boy." *Small* applies to size only. *Little* is opposed to

big; *small*, to *large*. The terms are relative, *little* being exceptionally *small*.

Luxuriant, luxurious.—*Luxuriant* means superabundant; *luxurious*, contributing to luxury; thus, “luxuriant vegetation;” “luxurious ease.”

Noted, notorious.—*Noted* refers to that which is well-known favorably or eminently, as “a noted orator.” *Notorious* is employed to express what is widely and publicly known, and usually, though not always, unfavorably; as, “A notorious thief.”

Obstinate, stubborn.—An *obstinate* person is one that will do what he has determined upon. A *stubborn* person will not do what others wish him to do. One term is positive; the other, negative.

Only, alone.—*Only* indicates that there is no other of the same kind; *alone*, denotes being accompanied by no other. “An only child” is one that has no brothers or sisters; “a child alone” is one that is not accompanied by any one. The following are correct: “Only members are admitted;” “The request alone was sufficient to secure the favor.”

Opinionated, conceited.—*Opinionated* denotes self-conceit on particular points in one’s judgment, accompanied with an obstinate determination to hold to one’s opinion. *Conceited* refers to the over-estimation of one’s own ability.

Penurious, saving.—*Saving* denotes the avoiding of unnecessary expense, whether as a habit or for a purpose. *Penurious* refers to the suffering of want in the extremity of saving.

Pliant, pliable.—That which is capable of bending is *pliant*. That which may be readily bent is *pliable*. A whipstock is pliant, but a whiplash is pliable.

Rational, reasonable.—*Rational* denotes that which

pertains to the reasoning powers as a faculty. It is that which distinguishes the man from the brute. *Reasonable* has reference more to that which is in accord with our sense of right or fitness, as "a reasonable excuse."

Ravenous, voracious.—Both these words apply to the matter of appetite. A *voracious* animal is one that eats large quantities of food; a *ravenous* animal is one that eats with great haste, usually because hunger has been increased by privation.

Refractory, ungovernable.—*Refractory* denotes perverseness in breaking rules or in disobeying commands. *Ungovernable* denotes that which sets at defiance all attempts to govern or control.

Regal, royal.—*Regal* means belonging to the attributes of a king; as, "regal splendor." *Royal* denotes belonging to the person of the king; as, "royal robes;" "royal crown."

Ridiculous, ludicrous.—*Ludicrous* denotes that which is likely to provoke laughter, but without any necessary admixture of contempt. *Ridiculous* conveys "the idea of the contemptible in things and the humiliating in persons."

Righteous, godly.—A *righteous* man is one who in a practical way believes in revealed religion, and does what he believes is in conformity with the Divine will. A *godly* man is one who communes with God, in prayer, meditation, and the study of God's word.

Scarce, rare.—Things are *rare* when only a few of the kind exist; they are *scarce* when they can be had only in less quantity than usual.

Sensible, sensitive.—*Sensible* expresses a habit or state of mind relating to a particular subject. Thus, one may be sensible of cold, heat, or kindness. *Sensitive* expresses a condition in which the sense or feeling

is quickly acted upon, as one is sensitive to changes of temperature.

Womanly, womanish.—*Womanly* denotes belonging to woman. *Womanish* means effeminate. Thus, we speak of the womanly traits of girls and the womanish ways of some men.

VERB SYNONYMS.

Abdicate, resign.—These words differ chiefly in their application to the importance of position. *Abdicate* means to leave or reject a high power, dignity, or station, as a king abdicates his throne. *Resign* means to quit or give up any situation, office, or employment, high or low, as an officer or an employee may resign his position.

Allow, permit.—To *allow* is to give some degree of sanction; to *permit* is simply not to prevent.

Argue, debate.—To *argue* is to say all that can be said either for or against a proposition; to *debate* is to sift by argument for and against.

Assassinate, kill, murder.—To *kill* is the broadest of these terms. It means simply to deprive of life, including vegetable as well as animal life. To *murder* is to kill with malicious thought and intention. To *assassinate* is to murder by secret or sudden attack upon a person.

Banish, expel, transport, expatriate.—To *banish* is to eject by ban or public proclamation. To *expel* is to drive out. To *transport* is to carry beyond the sea to a penal colony. To *expatriate* denotes the alienation from one's native land. One may expatriate himself, but he is banished, expelled, or transported by some authority in power.

Begin, commence.—*Begin* usually refers to time or order. *Commence* implies action. Thus, "A wicked life begins with little sins." Formal and public transactions

are said to commence. Thus, "The work of preparing the book was commenced before the holidays."

Collect, assemble.—To *collect*, used intransitively, is to gather from different places into one body or place. To *assemble* denotes the same as to collect, but is applicable only to persons.

Comprehend, apprehend.—*Apprehend* is to lay hold of or grasp by the mind. It is simply the recognition of a fact. *Comprehend* implies more than apprehend. To comprehend is to embrace or understand a thought in all its extent. I comprehend a thought when I know all about it.

Confess, acknowledge.—To *acknowledge* is to admit that one has knowledge. To *confess* implies a fault. The word confess is frequently misused for *acknowledge* or *admit*, as in "I confess I thought he was the taller of the two."

Confirm, corroborate.—The use of these words is to give strength to assertions. To *corroborate* is used only of the subjects; as, facts, opinions, or statements are corroborated, while *confirm* is used with reference both to the minds of the persons and to the subjects. Thus, "His statement was corroborated;" "I am confirmed in my opinion."

Confute, refute.—*Confute* applies both to an argument and to the person who makes the argument. To *refute* means to repel by the same kind of argument, and applies to anything that may be alleged against one, as calumny and the like.

Congratulate, felicitate.—To *felicitate* originally meant to make happy, and was the proper word to use when it was meant to compliment a singer or a speaker on the excellence of his performance. The word *congratulate*, which implies a sharing in another's happiness, has,

however, of late been made to take the place of the word *felicitate* when we mean a simple expression of formal politeness.

Devise, bequeath.—*Devise* is properly used for a gift of real estate by will. *Bequeath* is properly used when applied to a gift of personal property by will, but Law Courts have in a measure extended the application of the word “bequeath” to include what is properly expressed by the word “devise.”

Descry, discover.—*Discorer* is to bring to light what was concealed or unknown. *Descry* is to discover by the eye things difficult of discernment on account of distance or dimness.

Dispel, disperse.—*Dispel* means to separate or scatter in such a way as to cause to vanish. *Disperse* means simply to scatter abroad. We dispel illusions. Sunshine dispels the fog. We disperse crowds.

Distinguish, discriminate.—So far as these words are used as synonyms, *discriminate* is used only of moral subjects; *distinguish* is used also in reference to physical objects. We distinguish best by showing great differences, we discriminate best by showing slight differences.

Educate, instruct.—To *instruct* is to impart knowledge; to *educate* is to train and develop.

Excel, surpass.—To *excel* is to go beyond in good qualities or in laudable actions. *Excel* is employed only in an honorable sense. To *surpass* denotes to go beyond others, but it is not limited to what is praiseworthy.

Expend, spend.—*Spend* is applied indefinitely to what we pay out. *Expend* refers to what we pay out from a particular source on a particular object. Thus, “He spends two thousand dollars a year, of which he expends five hundred dollars on travel.”

Foretell, predict.—To *foretell* is to tell or declare beforehand what is to happen. *Predict* differs from foretell chiefly in being limited in its use to persons, while foretell is used also of other indicators, as “Clouds foretell rain.”

Grieve, mourn.—To *grieve* is to feel trouble or the pain of inward distress. It is purely mental. To *mourn* is to give outward expression to our grief.

Imbibe, absorb.—To *imbibe* means to take the moisture away from one body into another. To *absorb* means simply to take the moisture away. The rays of the sun are said to absorb moisture; a sponge both absorbs and imbibes.

Incite, excite.—To *excite* is to call into greater activity, or to arouse to an active state powers before dormant. To *incite* is to excite to a particular act or end.

Inhibit, prohibit.—To *prohibit* is to forbid by the force of authority; to *inhibit* is to prohibit coercively. Prohibition lies in words only; inhibition is supported by power to enforce the restraint.

Intrude, encroach, obtrude.—To *intrude* is to thrust one's self upon the presence or the society of another. To *encroach* is to come gradually or imperceptibly upon another's land or upon his rights. To *obtrude* is to thrust one's self in the way.

Move, remove.—To *move* is to change the position of an object, or to cause an internal motion of its parts. To *remove* it is to take it away bodily.

Nominate, name.—To *name* is to mention for a general purpose. To *nominate* is to mention for a specific purpose. Only persons are nominated. Things as well as persons are named.

Obstruct, hinder, prevent.—To *obstruct* is to place something in the way of. To *hinder*, the most general

of these terms, now means simply to keep one from his purpose temporarily. To *prevent* is to render altogether impracticable. To hinder supposes no design; to prevent denotes a premeditated act.

Obviate, prevent.—*Prevent* means so to hinder that an act shall not happen at all. *Obviate* means to prevent its happening in the future. Crimes and calamities should be prevented; difficulties, inconveniences, trouble, should be obviated.

Outlive, survive.—To *outlive* means to live longer than another; to *survive* is to live after another, or after certain antagonistic influences have been overcome.

Pardon, excuse.—To *excuse* is applied to small faults; to *pardon*, to greater ones.

Pare, peel.—*Pare* means to trim; *peel*, to take off the skin. An uncooked potato is pared; when cooked, it may be peeled. We peel an orange, but pare an apple. To peel denotes a natural process; to pare, an artificial one.

Prognosticate, foretell.—To *foretell* is to tell beforehand. To *prognosticate* is to know beforehand. A physician prognosticates the progress of a disease by the symptoms discoverable in the patient.

Raze, demolish.—*Raze* means to make even with the ground. *Demolish* means to destroy an organized body or a structural mass, as the walls of a building.

Recede, retreat, withdraw.—To *recede* is to go back; the action is suited to our convenience. To *retreat* is to draw back, usually from necessity, as to escape danger. *Withdraw* has much the same meaning as recede, except that recede refers to going back from a given spot, whereas *withdraw* is applied where the place or persons are concerned, as we withdraw from a room or from a company of persons.

Receive, accept.—Used as synonyms, *to receive* is to take back; *to accept* is to take to one's self. We receive what is our own; we accept what others offer us.

Recline, repose.—To *recline* is to lean back. To *repose* is to recline in such a position as is most easy and comfortable.

Recoil, rebound.—*Rebound* is to bound back or spring back. *Recoil* is to coil or whirl back. A ball rebounds; a snake recoils.

Relieve, alleviate.—To *relieve* is to remove or take away. To *alleviate* is to lighten or lessen. That which removes pain relieves it; that which affords ease from pain alleviates it.

Share, divide, distribute.—To *divide* is to cut or separate into parts. To *share* is to divide into parts and give those parts to others, reserving one or more parts for ourselves. To *distribute* is to give all the parts to others, reserving none for ourselves.

Shut, close.—To *close* means to bring together the parts, as we close the eyelids. To *shut* is to bring the parts so close together that there can be no ingress or egress. The petals of a flower close. We close a book. The door of a house is shut. One may shut his mouth by closing his lips. There are many cases where the words may be used interchangeably.

Slant, slope.—These words have substantially the same meaning, but their application varies. *Slant* is applied to small bodies; *slope*, to those that are either large or small. My pen *slants* as I write, but a hillside *slopes*.

Slip, slide, glide.—To *slip* means an involuntary movement. *Slide* refers to a voluntary movement. *Slip* and *slide* indicate lateral movements of the feet, while *glide*

indicates a movement of the whole body. We glide when we slide; a ship glides in the water.

Speak, talk, converse.—To *speaking* is simply to utter articulate sounds. To *talk* is to speak to others. To *converse* is to talk with others.

Treasure, hoard.—To *treasure* is to lay up for the sake of preserving. To *hoard* is to lay up for the sake of accumulating.

Utter, speak.—To *utter* is to put forth a vocal sound. To *speak* is to utter an intelligible sound. We may utter a groan, but we speak words.

Yield, submit.—To *yield* is to surrender one's self in consequence of external pressure. To *submit* denotes more of a voluntary action than to *yield*. We submit sometimes because we deem it prudent, and our submission is only partial or temporary. We yield because we are compelled, and the yielding is final. A person may submit without showing any resistance, but he yields only after a struggle.

ADVERB SYNONYMS.

Advisedly, deliberately.—One who speaks or acts *advisedly* does so with a full knowledge of the circumstances and the consequences of his conduct. One who speaks or acts *deliberately* takes time to weigh the matter in his mind.

Always, continually.—We do *always* what we do at all times and on all occasions. We do *continually* that which we do without intermission.

Almost, nearly.—*Almost* applies to matters of progression, degree, or force. *Nearly* is applied to matters of time, space, and fact. Thus, "We have almost finished the work." "I am nearly twenty years old." *Nearly* may be preceded by a negative; as, "It is *not* nearly so cold

as it was," but *almost* is never so preceded. A man "almost killed" may have been seriously hurt; while a man "nearly killed" has escaped entirely.

Consequently, therefore, accordingly.—*Consequently* means in consequence of; it is employed either in reasoning or in narration. *Therefore* means for this reason; it implies a conclusion and is employed in abstract reasoning. *Accordingly* means "according to some thing or principle;" it implies an agreement or an adaptation, and is used chiefly in narration.

Especially, particularly, chiefly, principally.—*Especially* and *particularly* are superlative in their import. They refer to one object out of the many that is superior to all others. *Especially* is the stronger word of the two. The words are used as follows: "We are too prone to listen to the evil that is spoken of others, especially of our enemies;" "There is but little rainfall in some parts of the West, particularly on the plains." *Chiefly* and *principally* are comparative in their import. They denote a superiority over only some others; as, "Indians live chiefly in the Territories." "They mistake the nature of criticism who think its business is principally to find fault."

Frequently, often.—*Often* usually refers to a series known to be established. It relates to a standard of frequency; as, "How often does the wheel revolve?" "How often do you come?" *Frequently* denotes the simple repetition of anything without reference to any standard or order; as, "We frequently have frost in October."

Relatively, comparatively.—*Comparatively* denotes according to an estimate made by comparison. It is opposed to *positively*. *Relatively* means according to a relation to something else; it is opposed to *absolutely*.

Comparatively regards an average; *relatively*, a standard. Thus, "The school has comparatively few students;" that is, considering the number attending other schools of like grade. "There were relatively few in attendance at the lecture;" that is, regarding the matter that was to be discussed.

Scarcely, hardly.—These words in many cases may be used interchangeably. Where there is a difference *scarcely* relates to quantity; *hardly*, to degree. "There was scarcely a bushel;" "It is hardly cold enough to freeze."

PREPOSITION SYNONYMS.

About, around, round, at.—*About* is less precise than *around* or *at*. It may apply to place, time, quantity, or number; as, "About the house;" "About midday;" "About a bushel;" "About twenty."

Around means "on all sides," "encircled like a ring or a globe." It implies rest, and locates place more definitely than "about;" as, "Around the fire-place," "Around the field." *Round* has generally reference to a rotary movement or a partial encircling; as, "The longest way round;" "To go round in a circle;" "Bread enough to go round."

At means nearness; as, "At the window;" "At 4 o'clock;" "At rest."

At, in.—These two words are frequently used in speaking of places or residence. Usually *in* implies enclosure; as, "We stayed in Holland;" "They lived in Philadelphia." It also is more generally applied to countries and larger cities, while *at* implies nearness to a point or border, and applies to smaller places or foreign cities; as, "They landed at Charleston;" "He stopped in New York, but he lives at Dover."

Above, over, beyond.—These terms have both a literal and a figurative meaning. *Above* means higher in position, number, degree, rank, etc.; as, “The room above this;” “The moral law is above the civil.” *Over* indicates what is expressed by *above*, with the addition of the idea of verticality; as, “The cliff juts over the river;” “The clouds hung over the valley.” *Beyond* relates to the measurement of distance, usually horizontal, but also sometimes vertical; as, “The forest is beyond the river;” “The stars are beyond the moon.”

Above, on, upon.—*On* and *upon* differ from *above* and *over* in this, that they imply contact; as, “The book is on the table;” “The cup was put upon the shelf.” *On* and *upon* differ as to relative height; thus, *on* is properly used when it implies contact on the upper side of anything, or even when action is implied and the position is low; as, “The pen is on the table;” “Throw the water on the grass.” *Upon* denotes that the position is one of some elevation, and generally it is used in connection with a verb implying action; as, “Upon the mountains;” “He tossed the book upon (up on) the shelf.” The two words are now, however, almost interchangeable. Sometimes for the sake of euphony or rhythm, *upon* is preferable to *on*; also when motion into position is involved.

After, behind.—*After* has special reference to the order to which two things belong in common, especially as regards time; as, “The assembly did not convene until after 10 o’clock;” “The hounds ran after the fox.” *Behind* has reference to the position of two things in space, without any notion of consecutiveness; as, “Behind the door;” “The tree behind the house;” “He has left no estate behind him to create controversy.”

Amid, among.—*Amid* and *amidst* mean so “surrounded by” as to be in the midst; as,

“Amid the lingering light.”

“Lead, kindly light, amid the encircling gloom

Lead thou me on.”—*Newman*.

“He stood firm amidst the storm.”

“Undaunted amidst insults and mockeries.”

Among implies number; also, “mingling with;” as,

“Love among mortals is but an endless sigh.”—*Longfellow*.

“Flowers among weeds.”

“To be happy yourself you must live among the happy.”—*Disraeli*.

“He sent his apostles forth like sheep amongst wolves.”—*Geikie*.

Among, between.—The distinction between *among* and *between* is one chiefly as to number. *Between* has reference to two; and *among*, to more than two; as, “Between daylight and dark;” “The proceeds were divided between the merchant and his partner;” the adage says, “There is honor among thieves,” the number unlimited; “We were among friends;” “The good opinion of the teacher soon spread among the pupils.”

Betwixt, which was formerly used in the sense of between, is now rarely used.

Below, under, beneath.—Smith, in *Synonyms Discriminated*, says, “That which we are *under* is that by which we are covered, overhung, or overtopped. That which we are *below* is simply something which is higher than ourselves. That which we are *beneath* is much higher than we.”

Beside, besides.—*Beside* means “by the side of” or “at the side;” as,

“A cot beside the sea.”

“Lovely Thais sits beside thee.”—*Dryden*.

Besides, as a preposition, means "in addition to" or "in connection with;" as,

"Besides his wealth he has few claims to recognition."

"The marquis had but little besides his palace."

But.—*But*, when used in the sense of except, is a preposition, and should be followed by the objective case; as,

"All but him had gone."

"The boy stood on the burning deck

Whence all but him had fled."—*Mrs. Hemans*.

Occasionally *but* is met with in literature, followed by the nominative case instead of the objective, as in the following from Scott:

"Should all the race of mortals die,
And none be left but he and I."

If this is correct usage, as is claimed by some, *but* is a conjunction, and the sense of the sentence is "And none be left but he and I" (be left). Has the poet violated a grammatical rule to make *I* rhyme with die? It seems so.

By, through, with.—*By* means nearness.

a. In *place*; as,

"A city by the sea."

"The house was close by the river."

b. In *time*; as,

"We shall be ready by Wednesday."

"The angel came by night."—*Stoddard*.

c. In *means*; as,

"Success is won by hard work."

"Your message came by mail."

d. In *manner*; as,

“We grew cold by degrees.”

“They came in one by one.”

By usually refers to persons; *with*, to things; *through* may refer to either. Thus, “The path having become useless *through* neglect, it was cleared *by* the servants *with* scythes and hoes.” *By* denotes the agent; *with*, the instrument; as, “He was shot by the guard with a musket.”

SPURIOUS WORDS.

A number of words, used probably first by the uneducated, but not recognized as good English, have found their way into our language. A few of these, usually known as spurious words, are here given.

Authoress. — There is no authority for this word, as there is none for *poetess* or *writeress*. There are but few words in our language which take the termination *ess*, and most of these are titles which primarily denote the names of males, and therefore take “*ess*” to denote the feminine. The most important of these are *abbot*, *baron*, *duke*, *count*, *emperor*, *prince*, *marquis*, and a few others among titles; also, *ambassador*, *governor*, *hunter*, *priest*, *prophet*, etc. But in the case of the words *author*, *poet*, *conductor*, *inspector*, etc., it is not necessarily the man but the person that acts; hence, sex is not necessarily indicated in the original forms *author*, *poet*, *writer*, etc., and no distinctive form is necessary for the feminine.

Agriculturalist is a word much used by writers on agriculture, but it has no legitimate existence. The correct word is *agriculturist*. Matthews remarks that we might as well speak of a geologicalist or a chemicalist as an agriculturalist.

Controversialist is another spurious word occasionally used. The word is derived from "controvert." A controvertist is one who controverts. The office being already filled by "controvertist" and "controverter," there is no place for "controversialist," which could mean only one who "controversials," a term which is unknown to our language.

Donate is one of the ill-born words for which the language seems to have no use so long as we have the words *give*, *present*, *bestow*, *grant*, etc. But *donate* is probably no worse than *orate* from oration, *collate* from collation, 'orate from ovation, and the like, none of which should be recognized as legitimate words, or be used by those who desire to speak correct English.

Enthuse, though lately growing somewhat into favor, is a word not yet recognized by the best authorities as good English.

Firstly is sometimes used by even such reputable writers as Dickens, but it is not a word in good standing. The word *first* is the proper word whether as an adjective or as an adverb.

Folks for *folk* is condemned by the critics because the word *folk* already implies plurality.

Had have, or, as it is often written by the illiterate, *had of* or *had or*, is a vulgarism used for *had*. The proper expression is "Had I seen him," not "Had I have seen him."

Illy is frequently used for *ill*. *Ill* may be used as either adverb or adjective. There is no such word as *illy*.

Innumerable Number.—This expression, occasionally used, represents something impossible.

Jeopardize is a word that has given rise to some discussion. The original word is *jeopard*, which, it is

claimed, is a legitimate English word as old as the language, meaning "to expose to loss or injury, to imperil, to hazard." The word *jeopardize*, though condemned by such writers on English as Gould and Richard Grant White, has still made considerable progress in the way of supplanting *jeopard*. But, as one writer remarks, there seems to be no more necessity for the word than there is for *perilize*, *hazardize*, and similar words yet uncoined.

Leniency is another of the words not needed in our language. We already have *lenity* and the adjective *lenient* to cover the ground.

Preventative, a spurious form for preventive, *rotatory* for rotary, *casualty* for casualty, *underhanded* for underhand, *speciality* for specialty, are barbarisms which, as Matthews says, should be excommunicated.

Stand-point, though much used, is a questionable word. Why we should have stand-point and not be allowed to use start-point as a legitimate word, is difficult to understand. The correct forms are "standing-point" and "starting-point" if they are to be used. Stand-point is used incorrectly for "point of view."

Then as an adjective, as in "The then king of France," is sanctioned by some authorities and condemned by others.

The masses, as a term meaning the people in general, is condemned by the best authorities on the proper use of English. In the statement, "It is a conflict between the classes and the masses," one is inclined to ask, Masses of what?

WORDS LIABLE TO BE MISUSED.

Words are frequently used which do not convey the meaning intended. The speech of the Congressman

who, when an insinuation was made against his motives, indignantly "denied the allegation and defied the alligator," is a fair illustration of how easily words may be misapplied. When Shillaber makes Mrs. Partington speak of the *asophagus* as the *sarcophagus*, we enjoy the wit because we know that the wrong word has been used with a full knowledge of its meaning for the purpose of amusing us; but many of these misused words are misused ignorantly or carelessly.

Frequently words that differ somewhat in meaning are liable to be substituted for each other. Care should be taken to give the proper shade of meaning to each word.

Careless or thoughtless writers frequently use words loosely without regard to the exact meaning. Thus, the word *party* is often used improperly for the word *person*. A *person* is an individual human being; a *party* is a collection of persons, or used in the singular it is one who takes a part or is a party to a suit or a legal document.

Thus, also, the word *success* is sometimes used where the adjective *successful* would be more appropriate. Thus, "Our meeting was a great success" might be expressed more elegantly by the form, "Our meeting was very successful."

The word *team* is a word frequently misused. The word properly means "two or more animals working together." A single horse is not a team, nor is a horse and a carriage, nor are two or more horses hitched to a wagon. Two or more horses are a team when working together, but the wagon or other vehicle constitutes no part of the team. The term "foot-ball team" is strictly correct.

The following is a partial list of words liable to be misused.

Accord for grant.—To *accord* means to agree with or

to suit; as, "That accords with my views," or "Your views accord with mine." But in the expression, "He accorded (granted) me many privileges," the word *grant* implies what we wish to say.

Affable for good-natured.—*Affable* means easy of approach in conversation, ready to speak, but it is now applied to express an easy and considerate manner on the part of persons of superior position to those of inferior rank. A President may be affable to his guests.

Aggravating for irritating.—*Aggravating* means making heavier or more grave. It is frequently misused for the word *irritating*, which means exciting unduly in either a physical or a mental sense.

All of them for them all.—We may say I bought "one of them" or "two of them," but not "all of them." *Of* means here *out of*, and cannot be used with *all*. The proper form is "them all;" thus, "I bought them all."

Allude for say or mention.—To *allude* to a thing means to hint at it playfully without any direct mention of it. As an example of its misuse, speakers frequently say as follows: "The gentleman in his remarks has alluded to my speech on this question." It would be better to say "has mentioned my speech," or "has referred to my speech."

Alternative.—*Alternative* implies a choice between two things. We cannot speak of two alternatives as being offered, but one alternative or choice. When that choice has been made there remains no more. Careless writers speak of "several alternatives" having been presented or offered.

Antecedents.—This word is used frequently in reference to a man's previous conduct or character; as in "What do you know of this person's antecedents?" Such usage is not correct. The antecedents of a person

are properly those who have preceded him. The proper form of the question is, "What do you know of this person's past life?"

Appreciates for rises.—The word "appreciate" is often incorrectly used to express a rise in price; as, "Wheat has appreciated in value." In this sense the word is improperly used for *rise* (risen).

Apt for liable or likely.—*Apt* means the possession of mental ability. An apt person qualifies himself for any work with comparative ease. Thus, we say, "He is apt to learn," or "He is apt to teach." *LIABLE* expresses a capability of being acted upon; as, "We are liable to catch cold;" "Iron is liable to rust." *Likely* is used chiefly in the sense of probability; as, "It will likely rain to-night." Frequently the word apt is improperly used for liable; as, "The weather is apt (liable) to change at any time;" "We are apt to be disappointed."

At all is a needless phrase. It adds nothing to the meaning or force of an expression in which it is used. "Nobody at all was injured in the accident" and "It was not at all strange," express no more than they would by the omission of the phrase *at all*.

Balance for remainder or rest.—*Balance* is properly the difference between the two sides of an account. The *rest* is that which remains or is left after the separation of a part or parts. The *remainder* is the rest under certain conditions, usually the smaller part which remains after the greater part has been taken away. Instead of saying "A large part of the army escaped, but the balance were either killed or wounded," say "the rest" or "the remainder" were either killed or wounded.

Besides for beside.—*Beside* is a preposition, and means "by the side of;" as,

“Harry sits beside his mother.”

Usage has extended the meaning to “out of the regular course” and “out of;” thus,

“It is beside my present intention to disturb those in office.”

“Paul, thou art beside thyself.”

Besides is a preposition when it means “in addition to;” as,

“Besides the children, the parents were much interested.”

Besides is an adverb when it means “moreover;” as,

“Besides, there are other matters to be looked after.”

Both alike.—The word “both” in the expression “both alike” is superfluous. If two things are alike, each is like the other, and “The two are alike,” or “They are alike,” expresses the thought correctly.

Bound for determined.—It is not correct English to say “I am bound to go.” The word “bound” is here incorrectly used for the word “determined.” In the expression “The ship is bound for New Orleans,” the word *bound* is derived from a root meaning “to make ready.”

Bourn for country.—*Bourn* is properly a boundary or limit, and is correctly used in Hamlet’s Soliloquy:

“The undiscovered country from whose bourn (edge) no traveler returns.”

It is not correct to use “bourn” as referring to the country itself.

Bring for fetch.—*Bring* implies motion in one direction only, toward the speaker. It is correct to say to a person at some distance, “Bring me a book;” “Bring your friend with you;” but to one at our side we should say, “Fetch me the book from the library;” that is, motion in two directions, “go and bring,” first *from* then *to* the speaker.

But for that or if.—*But* should not be made to take the place of *that* or *if*. The word *but* is incorrectly used in both the following sentences: “I do not doubt but [that] he will be here;” “I should not wonder but [if] that were true.”

Calculated for likely.—*Calculate* means to compute or reckon, but its participle is often used in the sense of *likely*, a shorter and better word for the purpose. Thus,

“The nomination of a strong partisan is calculated [likely] to arouse the opposition.”

Even Goldsmith says,

“The only danger that attends the multiplicity of publications is, that some of them may be calculated to injure rather than benefit society.”

Can for may.—*Can* expresses power; *may*, possibility, permission, probability. I *can* do that which I have the power to do. I *may* do that which I have permission to do, or that of which there is a possibility or a probability; as, “I may be in the City to-morrow.” “It may rain before we return.” “How many pencils can I buy for a dollar?” “How many pencils may be bought for a dollar?”

Carnival for festival or frolic.—*Carnival* (carnis vale) means literally a farewell to flesh. It was formerly used to signify a festival celebrated with merriment and revelry the week before Lent. But the word has been perverted to mean almost any party, frolic, or festival; and we have the expressions “boating carnivals,” “sleighting carnivals,” “skating carnivals,” notwithstanding the fact that we have legitimate words appropriate to all these frolics.

Catch for overtake.—*Catch* for *overtake* is a common

error, so often made that many will hesitate to believe that "try to catch a car" is not better than "try to overtake a car," and yet the former is not a correct use of "catch," which means "to seize." One may "catch up" with a car, but not "catch it" in the sense of overtaking it.

Citizen for person or resident.—A *citizen* is one who has certain legal and political rights. Aliens are not citizens, and persons either native born or aliens may be *residents* without being citizens. The word "citizen" is improperly used in the following: "A number of citizens on the train offered their services in helping to care for the wounded." The expression should be "A number of persons," etc. "The citizens of the town, of all classes and nationalities, entered their protest against the nuisance." Better, "The residents," etc.

Consequence for importance.—*Consequence* has reference to what follows or to results. The root-word is *sequor*, to follow. *Importance* refers to things of moment in themselves. To say that something is of no consequence is to say that it is of no following or result. The proper expression is, "It is of no importance."

Consider for think.—To *consider* is to ponder, to think about carefully. We hear the expression, "We do not consider the topic a fit one for open discussion," or "We do not consider him fit for the place," when we have not considered. We mean "We do not think him fit for the place."

Contemptible for contemptuous.—*Contemptible* means that which deserves contempt; *contemptuous* means filled with contempt. There may be contemptible persons and contemptible acts. Our opinions of them are contemptuous.

Convene for convoke.—*Convene* means to come to-

gether; *convoke*, to call together. It is not correct to say "The President convenes Congress." The President may convoke Congress, but Congress convenes.

Correspond with for correspond to.—Many writers use these phrases interchangeably. Objects correspond to each other; persons, with each other by writing. Thus, "The ornaments correspond to each other;" "His manner of living corresponds to his means;" "The brothers corresponded with each other so long as they lived apart."

Couple for two.—A *couple* is two coupled or united by some bond. A man and his wife are a couple. Even two of the same kind are not always a couple. Thus, two gloves or two shoes, to be used together, are a pair; two partridges, a brace; two oxen, a yoke or pair; two horses, a span or team. Such phrases as "a couple of eggs," "a couple of days," "a couple of dollars," "a couple of books," etc., are all incorrect.

Crime for sin or vice.—A *crime* is a violation of the civil law. What is a crime in one country may not be a crime in another, and what is a crime at one time may not be a crime at another, because the laws may change. A *sin* is a violation of the Divine law. *Vice* is a course of action or a habit of life which is harmful to the actor and harmful to others.

Crushed out for crushed.—Generally the word *crushed* is sufficient to express the thought intended. Thus, "The rebellion was crushed" expresses concisely the thought to be conveyed. "His skull was crushed" is quite as expressive as "His skull was crushed in."

Curious for strange or remarkable.—Primarily *curious* meant inquisitive, and it is still used in this sense. It was used by Addison in the sense of intermeddling with all knowledge. It is sometimes used to mean nice or intricate, as we speak of images "curiously carved,"

but its use for *strange*, *remarkable*, or *queer* is not sanctioned by the best usage.

Deadly for deathly.—*Deadly* is that which causes death, while *deathly* is that which resembles death. Thus, “a deadly weapon;” “a deathly pallor.”

Deceiving is frequently used for the phrase *trying to deceive*. It is thus incorrectly used in the sentence “You are deceiving me.” The meaning to be conveyed is that “you are misrepresenting in order to deceive.”

Decimated for reduced.—*Decimated* means reduced by one-tenth. To speak of a regiment’s having been decimated by one-third is of course incorrect.

Defalcation for default.—*Defalcation* means a lopping off. The right word to indicate the crime of not paying to the proper parties the money which one has collected for them is *default*. The verb indicating this action is *default*, and the criminal is a *defaulter*.

Delicious for delightful.—*Delicious* relates to the gratification of the senses. *Delightful* relates to the state of the mind. Thus, we say “delicious food,” “delicious fragrance,” “a delicious taste,” etc.; but “delightful music,” “a delightful landscape,” “a delightful entertainment.”

Depot for station.—A *depot* is a place of deposit where goods are placed for safe keeping. *Station* is the correct name of the place at which passengers gather to take the cars. One would not say “The next depot is Lancaster,” but “The next station is Lancaster.” Literally, the expression means that the next station at which the train stops (*sto, stare, to stand*) is Lancaster.

Directly for immediately or instantly.—*Directly* is applied to the action of persons. It is frequently used in the sense of “as soon as,” but incorrectly so; as, “Directly he stopped, the coffin was removed by four

men.”—*Dickens*. *Directly* means soon; as, “We will call them directly.” *Immediately* refers to the course of time, and signifies “without interruption or intervening time.” *Instantly* means “in an instant;” it is a stronger word than “immediately.”

Dirt for **earth** or **soil**.—*Dirt* is filth. The word has properly no other meaning. But we hear persons speak of “dirt roads,” meaning unpaved roads. These are properly earth roads or gravel roads. The word *dirt* should be restricted to its proper use.

Divine for **clergyman**.—*Divine* is properly an adjective, but it is frequently used as a noun as a substitute for the word clergyman, a much more appropriate word.

Dock for **wharf**.—A *dock* is an open place, without a roof, into which anything, usually a ship, is received and enclosed for safety. So also a prisoner is placed in the dock during trial. A *wharf* is properly the pier to which a vessel is fastened while it lies in the dock.

Dress for **gown**.—*Dress* is really a general term including one’s entire apparel, undergarments included. The proper word to apply to the outer garment of a woman, often known as a dress, is *gown*. *Frock*, though now rarely used, is applied to the outer apparel of either sex.

Drive for **ride**.—Many persons make a distinction in these two terms, by limiting the use of the word *ride* to horseback exercise, which might now be extended probably to exercise on a bicycle, and using the word *drive* for carriage-riding. But we may ride on horseback or in a carriage. We may take a horseback ride, a carriage ride, or a ride in the cars. The action in any of these cases is riding; the person who manages the horse or the engine is the driver. “To take a boat ride or a carriage ride in the Park” is correct English. “To take a

ride in the Park" is ambiguous. It may mean a ride on horseback or a ride in a carriage, or even in a street-car.

Dry for thirsty.—*Dry* denotes the absence of moisture. *Thirsty* signifies the desire for drink.

Either.—The hypercritical object to the use of the conjunction *either* when more than two are spoken of. While *either*, used as an adjective, as "Either of the boys," is limited in its application to two, there is no such restriction in its use as a conjunction, the correlative of *or*. We may say "Either the boy or his sister," and we may also say, "Either James, George, William, or Henry," or we may supply the conjunctions, and say, "Either James, or George, or William, or Henry," in which case *either* is used as a correlative with each of the conjunctions separately.

The foregoing remarks apply with equal force to the use of *neither* as a correlative conjunction.

Elder for older.—*Elder* is properly applied to persons only, while *older* is applied to objects of any kind, animate or inanimate. One horse or one book may be older, but never elder, than another.

Empty for vacant.—*Empty* denotes containing nothing; as, "an empty purse;" "an empty pail." *Vacant* refers to what may be occupied or is intended to be occupied; as, "a vacant chair." A house is vacant when no one lives in it; it is empty when it is devoid of furniture or belongings.

Enough for sufficient.—*Enough* is the quantity which one wishes to have; *sufficient* is the quantity which one needs. *Enough* implies more than *sufficient*.

Epithet for name.—*Epithet* is given by dictionaries as an adjective. The noun to which it corresponds is *name* or *appellation*. The words "villain," "coward," "fool,"

“knave,” are appellations, but “vile,” “cowardly,” “foolish,” “knavish,” “good,” “just,” “honest,” etc., are *epithets*. The import of *epithet* may be either good or bad. When, therefore, we apply an epithet to a person we use the adjective; when we call him names we use nouns.

Equally as well for equally well or as well.—*As well as* means substantially the same as “equally.” “They can do this equally well,” or “They can do this as well as we,” is correct; but “They can do this equally as well,” or “equally as well as,” is tautological.

Every for all.—The word *every* in such expressions as “every praise,” “every confidence,” and the like, is used incorrectly. If there were a number of praises or confidences, these expressions might be correct, for *every* means “each of all.” It cannot be applied to abstractions. If we mean the term to apply to a number collectively or to abstractions, the proper word is *all*; as, “All men are liable to err;” “We had all confidence in him.”

Evidence for testimony.—*Evidence* is frequently misused for the word *testimony*. “Evidence relates to the convictive view of one’s mind; testimony, to the knowledge of another concerning some fact,” says Matthews. In fact, the evidence in a case is sometimes the reverse of the testimony.

Except for unless.—*Except* is a preposition. It cannot be used to connect clauses. The correct word to use where a clause is to be added is the conjunction *unless*. Thus, “No one need apply except he has a certificate,” should be “No one need apply unless he has a certificate.”

Excessively for exceedingly.—“*Exceedingly hot*” may mean simply very hot; “*excessively hot*” indicates an excess of heat. We may not object to great cold, but we may complain when it is *excessively cold*.

Executed for hanged.—Latterly the word *executed* has in a measure taken the place of the word *hanged*. To *execute* is “to carry out, to perform.” Thus, “The President is bound to execute the laws.” But it will be noticed that no such meaning as “carry out” or “perform” can be applied to the taking of one’s life by hanging, in the execution of the law. As between the two words *hanged* and *hung*, the former is the proper word for depriving of life by hanging. Our clothes are hung in the wardrobe, and banners are hung on the walls, but persons are *hanged* by the neck to deprive them of life.

Exemplary for excellent.—*Exemplary* means more than *excellent*, though frequently used as a synonym for this word. *Exemplary* refers really to setting an example that should be followed, as in “exemplary conduct.”

Expect for suppose.—The word *expect* is loosely used for *think*, *suppose*, *guess*. It should be used only in referring to that which is to come. Thus, “I suppose you had an enjoyable visit;” “I expect you will have an enjoyable visit.”

Experience for receive or suffer.—Thus, we *suffer* discomfort or *receive* unkind treatment. We do not properly *experience* either, though it has been so written, but incorrectly, “The prisoners experienced many hardships.” “Experienced” is also improperly used for *felt*, as in the following: “The child experienced a new sensation.”

Extend for send.—Nearly every society now “extends” invitations when it should “send” them. *Extend* means to “stretch forth.” Do we mean to stretch forth an invitation when we send it? “Extend” is, of course, much used in the sense of “send,” but not correctly so.

Factor for feature.—*Factor* is a much misused word when it is substituted for the word *feature*. Thus, "One of the important factors of the painting was a beautiful sunset scene." The writer meant, of course, one of the important *features* of the painting.

Female for woman.—As an adjective to denote sex the word *female* is permissible, as in speaking of teachers they are referred to in reports and elsewhere as *male teachers* and *female teachers*. As a noun the word *female* may be applied to other animals as well as man, and it should not be used in place of the word *woman*. We speak of the human members of the male sex as men or gentlemen; we should in the same manner speak of the human members of the female sex as women or ladies.

Few, a few.—The accuracy of the expression *a few* has been questioned. *A few* and *a many*, with proper modifications, are correct. *Few*, preceded by *a*, means "some;" as, "A few (some) came yesterday." *Few*, without the article, means "almost none;" as, "Few came to-day." In the sentence "A great many came," *a great*, meaning "very," is properly a complex adverb modifying the adjective *many*. We have the expression in another form:

"Full many a flower is born to blush unseen,"

where *many a* is a complex adjective modifying the noun *flower*; and *full*, an adverb, modifying the adjective "many a."

Figure for amount, sum, or number.—Common usage has made the word *figure* do duty for the expressions *amount*, *number*, *sum*. Thus, we have "Seven hundred and twenty dollars, or about that figure [amount];" "The united sales amounted to a very large figure [sum]." Even Dean Trench uses the ex-

pression, "has attained a circulation of 1000; no very large figure [number]. certainly."

Final completion.—The adjective "final" is here unnecessary, as every completion is final.

Fly for flee.—These two words are frequently misused, one for the other. *Fly* means to move with wings, either swiftly or slowly. *Flee* means to move away with voluntary rapidity. "Fly to the mountains for safety" evidently should be "Flee to the mountains," etc. A newspaper lately, in referring to the burning of a seminary building crowded with girls, says that "the fire burned so rapidly and the danger became so great, that the students were compelled to fly in their night-clothes."

From hence, from thence, from whence.—In each of these expressions the word *from* is superfluous. *Whence* means "from where;" therefore "from whence" means "from from where." The same is true of the words *hence* and *thence*, each includes the word *from* as part of its meaning. "From whence cometh my help?" should be "Whence cometh my help?"

Graduated.—Shall we say *graduated at* or *was graduated from*? Modern usage seems to sanction either form. Gould, in *Good English*, refers to a memoir of Noah Webster, in which it is stated that he *graduated* with reputation in 1788, and then adds, "The biographer might as well have said that 'he born on the 16th of October, 1758.'" There can be no question that the form *was graduated*, meaning "was graded," is correct, and one can make no mistake in using that form. The institution does the graduating, and the student is graduated.

Gratuitous for unwarranted or unreasonable.—The word gratuitous means "without recompense or equiv-

alent." or "without proof." A *gratuitous* assertion is therefore properly one that has no proof, or is unfounded; but an *unwarranted* or *unreasonable* assertion is not necessarily a *gratuitous* assertion.

Grow for become.—*Grow* means to increase, to become larger in quantity, quality, or condition. Thus, a smooth sea may *become* rough and *grow* rougher; a clear night may *become* dark and *grow* black or darker; the moon may *grow* brighter, but *become* smaller.

Ice-cream and ice-tea are terms now commonly used for what are properly "iced-cream" and "iced-tea."

Issue for number.—A paper or a magazine is issued at regular periods, and numbered according to the number of times it has been issued during a definite period. We should speak, therefore, not of "a late issue" or "a recent issue," but of a late or a recent number of a paper.

Jew, Hebrew, Israelite.—These words are now properly synonyms. Originally they were terms applied to the race. A prominent writer says, "Under the theocracy they were known as *Hebrews*, under the monarchy as *Israelites*, and under foreign domination as *Jews*." At present they are known as *Hebrews* in race and language, as *Israelites* in religion, and as *Jews* in all three senses. We may speak of the Hebrew language or the Hebrew race, but not of the Hebrew religion. "Jewish" is now more commonly applied than "Israelitish" to the religion.

Jewelry for jewels.—*Jewelry* properly refers to the place where jewels are kept. It belongs to the same class of words as library, shrubbery, armory, grocery, infirmary, etc., all of which indicate place. "These are my *jewels*," said the mother of the Gracchi.

Lady for wife.—The word *lady* is interchangeable with the word *woman*. The word *wife* is used in a more re-

stricted sense. A cultured man never refers to his wife as his lady.

Last for latest.—The *last* has no successors. *Last* has reference to the order of succession; *latest* has reference to the order of time. We should therefore say, "I have received your latest letter," not "your last letter." Many others may follow the *latest*.

Leave.—This word is frequently, though incorrectly, used without an object; as, "I shall leave to-morrow." The object should be mentioned; as, "I leave the city to-morrow," or "I leave home this morning."

Less for fewer.—*Less* refers to size; *fewer*, to number. We should not say "There were less than fifty present," but "There were fewer than fifty present."

Lie, lay.—The forms of the intransitive verb *lie*, meaning to recline, are *lie, lay, lain*. Thus, "I lie on the couch now. I lay on it yesterday. I have lain on it frequently. I will lie on it to-morrow."

The forms of the transitive verb *lay* are *lay, laid, laid*. *Lay* denotes transitive action.

The following sentences show the distinction between the words:

Present.—I lie on the lounge (rest); I lay the child on the lounge (action).

Past.—I lay on the bed yesterday (rest); I laid the child on the bed (action).

Present Perfect.—I have lain on the lounge (rest); I have laid the child on the lounge (action).

Future.—I will lie on the lounge (rest); I will lay the child on the lounge (action).

Errors in the use of these words are frequent.

Senate Rule II. says, "When a question is under debate, no motion shall be received but to adjourn, *to lie on the table*," etc. A rule of the House of Representa-

tives uses the same expression. Of course the phrase should be "to lay on the table;" that is, *to lay a motion or a proposition on the table*. As the rule stands, it would seem to mean that a member of the Senate or of the House is privileged to make a motion (movement?) to lie on the table. The rule as it stands might be construed as a reflection on the sobriety of Congress.

Likewise for also.—*Likewise* couples actions or states of being; *also* classes together objects or qualities. Thus, "The canary sang cheerily and the robin likewise;" "He is witty, also wise."

Loan for lend.—*Loan* is used properly as a noun, the name of the thing lent. The word expressing the action is *lend*. Thus, "Lend me your knife."

Most for almost.—*Most* is the superlative of much, and refers to quantity or degree. *Most* is frequently used incorrectly in the sense of *almost* or *nearly*; as, "Most anybody would like the work."

Most for very.—*Most* is frequently used improperly for *very*. Thus,

"I had not been long at the university before I distinguished myself by a most profound silence."—*Addison*.

"He was a most complete orator and debater in the House of Commons."—*Chesterfield*.

"His affections were so social and generous that when he had money, he gave it most liberally away."—*W. Irving*.

Mutual for common.—*Mutual* means reciprocal. It refers to actions or sentiments, not to objects. Love or friendship may be mutual, but friends cannot be mutual. "Our Mutual Friend" is a misnomer. We may speak of our common friend if necessary, as we speak of our common enemy; that is, the friend of two or more in common.

One, when used in the plural, is not grammatically

incorrect, but it is better not to use the expression as in "I found several very good ones among the books he bought." Omit the words *very good*, and the sense is destroyed.

One-half for a half.—Inasmuch as there can be only one half, as two halves are a whole one, it is better to say "two and a half," "six and a half," etc., than two and one-half or six and one-half. Such expressions as "two and one-fourth" or "two and three-fourths," are correct.

Partially for partly.—*Partially* means properly "with unjust bias." When anything is done in part it is *partly* done.

Patron for customer.—One who deals with another or buys of him is a customer, not a patron.

People for persons.—*People* means a body of persons regarded collectively, a nation. "Many people are of this opinion," should be "Many persons are of this opinion."

Plenty for plentiful.—*Plentiful* denotes the presence of plenty, and is the proper form for the adjective. Thus, "We have a plentiful supply;" "Money will be plentiful."

Portion for part.—A *portion* is a part set aside for a special purpose or to be considered by itself. A *part* is usually an indefinite portion. Thus, "Some parts of the city were crowded."

Present for introduce.—*Present* means to introduce to superiors. Thus, persons of certain rank are presented at court, and foreign ministers are presented to the President of our own country. Friends are *introduced*. We introduce our friends to each other, usually the younger to the older, a gentleman to a lady, the person in the lower position to the one in the higher.

Previous for previously.—The latter is the adverbial form, and is the correct one to use in modifying a verb. Thus, “Previously to my coming no one had been here.”

Promise for assure.—The former word is frequently misused for the latter. Thus, “I promise you I was much delighted.”

Proposition for proposal.—A *proposition* is something submitted for one’s consideration; a *proposal* is a thing proposed or something offered to be done.

Proven for proved.—The verb *prove* is regarded by grammarians as a regular verb, whose past tense ends in *ed*. *Proved* is therefore the correct past tense form, and there is no need of the word “proven,” though it is frequently used.

Purpose for propose.—*Purpose* indicates a settled state of mind; *propose* indicates only a contingent state. I *purpose* to do that on which my decision is fixed. I *propose* to do that on which my mind has not definitely decided.

Quantity for number.—The word *quantity* should be used in connection with a mass not to be counted; as, “a quantity of wheat,” or “a quantity of iron;” but when speaking of individual objects the word *number* is the proper word to use; as, “a number of sticks,” “a number of books,” “a number of persons.”

Quite for very.—*Quite* means completely or entirely. Such expressions as “quite a number,” “quite an exhibition,” “quite cold,” are not in accordance with the best usage; but we may say “quite full,” “quite empty,” etc.

Recommend for advise or request.—*Recommend* means literally to re-commend, or commend to some one else. In the sentence, “*Resolved*,—That the mem-

bers of this association be recommended to meet at 9 o'clock," etc., the word "advised" should be substituted for the word "recommended."

Religious, pious.—A *pious* man has reverence and love for a supreme being. A *religious* man acknowledges a bond which requires the performance of certain duties and rites in relation to a supreme being or to a future state, or to both. Jews, Mohammedans, Christians, espouse different religions, but the piety of all of them is the same.

Remember for recollect.—What we hold in the mind we *remember*, what we recall on effort we *recollect*. We may remember and not be able to recall or *recollect* when we wish to do so. We cannot recollect without remembering.

Remit for send.—The word *remit* means to "send again," or "to send back," and there seems to be no good reason why it should be used for the word *send*. If one were to comply literally with the request to remit when a bill is sent, he would send the bill back instead of paying it. The word has, however, found a place in commercial transactions from which it could be dislodged with difficulty.

Rendition for rendering.—*Rendition* denotes surrender or giving up, as when we speak of the rendition of a besieged town or the rendition of a pledge for the payment of a debt. When a drama is well presented we say correctly that "the rendering of the play was admirable."

Restive for restless.—*Restive* means standing stubbornly still, as a balky horse. *Restless* implies uneasy motion.

Reverend, honorable.—These words are adjectives, and should be used only with the names to which they belong. The definite article is always used with them.

Thus, "The Rev. Mr. Miller," "The Rev. James Dobson," "The Hon. Mr. Stevens."

Section for neighborhood, vicinity, region.—The use of the word *section* in the sense here noted, originated probably in connection with the land sections of the West, but it is not applicable to the words "neighborhood," "vicinity," or "region," and it should not be used in their stead.

Shall, will.—Probably no two words in our language are more frequently used incorrectly than *shall* and *will*.

The following are the simplest rules for the use of these words in independent sentences:

To denote *futurity* or to *predict*, *shall* is used in the first person, and *will* in the second and the third. Thus,

1. "I shall be there."
2. "Will you be there?"
3. "He will be there."

In *promises*, *will* is used in the first person and *shall* in the second and the third. Thus,

1. "I will go."
2. "You shall go."
3. "He shall go."

In dependent sentences, the usage is as follows:

When a subordinate noun-clause is introduced by the word *that* and modifies such verbs as *say*, *fear*, *think*, etc., if the noun-clause and the principal clause have different subjects, the distinction is the same as in independent sentences. Thus,

1. "The teacher says that Horace will come well prepared." (Futurity.)

2. "Mother says that you will have a pleasant visit." (Futurity.)

3. "My father predicts that I shall succeed." (Futurity.)

4. "They say that Henry shall go with us." (Promise or volition.)

5. "The teacher says that you shall shut the door." (Volition.)

6. "The boy fears that I will punish him." (Volition.)

When the subordinate clause and the principal clause have the same subject, and in all dependent clauses introduced by *if*, *when*, *although*, etc., *shall* is used to express futurity in all the persons, and *will* in all the persons implies an exercise of the will on the part of the person represented by the subject of the clause. Thus,

1. "The doctor says that he shall be pleased to go with us." (Futurity.)

2. "I think I shall be glad to know your friends."

3. "You fear that you shall fail."

4. "Henry says that he will meet us at the office."

5. "You said that you will pay the expenses."

6. "I think that I will go along."

7. "When He shall appear, we shall be like Him."

8. "If you will let me help you, I shall be greatly pleased."

9. "If he will give us permission, we will hold the concert in the chapel."

10. "Although we will not consent, they will leave at day-break."

Shall and Will in Questions.

In questions *will* is never correctly used in the first person except when it repeats a question asked by some one else; as, "Will you lend me your knife?" "Will I lend you my knife? Certainly."

In questions in which the second or the third person is used, the auxiliary which is expected in the answer is used in the question. Thus,

"Shall you be glad to take the trip?" "I shall." (Futurity.)

"Will you go with us?" "I will." (Volition.)

"Will your brother go with us?" "He will."

Should, would.—*Should* is the past tense of *shall*; and *would*, the past tense of *will*.

The rules which govern the use of “shall” and “will” apply also to the use of “should” and “would,” but *should* and *would* have in addition certain meanings of their own to which attention must be given.

Should is sometimes used in the sense of “ought;” as, “You should attend to the work promptly;” “I should have gone;” “They should have informed us.”

Should is used also in a conditional sense; as, “If it should be very cold, we would not go.”

Would is sometimes used to denote habitual action; as, “Mother would sit in her easy-chair and watch the children at their play.”

Would also sometimes expresses a wish, as in David’s Lament, “Would God, I had died for thee, O Absalom, my son, my son!”

They who keep in mind these special meanings of *should* and *would* may safely follow the rules given for *shall* and *will*, remembering that “should” and “would” are simply the past tenses of these words.

Sit, set, settle.—*Sit* is an active but intransitive verb, and like *lie* it implies rest. *Set* is a transitive verb that implies action; it needs an object to complete its meaning.

The principal parts of *sit* are sit, sat, sat; of *set*, they are set, set, set.

The use of the words may be distinguished as follows:

Present.—I sit on the bench (rest).

I set the pitcher on the table (action).

Past.—I sat on the bench (rest).

I set the broom in the closet (action).

Pres. Perf.—I have sat on the bench (rest).

I have set the broom in the closet (action).

Of the verb *sit*, the other tense forms in the indicative are "had sat," "will sit," "will have sat."

Of the verb *set*, the remaining tense forms in the indicative are "had set," "will set," "will have set."

The query as to whether we should say a "sitting hen" or a "setting hen," may be answered by saying, We *set* the hen, she *sits*, and is a sitting hen. As to a "sitting" or a "setting" of eggs, they are to be set or placed in the nest, and are therefore a "setting of eggs."

Why not say "The sun sits" instead of "The sun sets," inasmuch as the action is intransitive? The word *sets* in this case comes from the Anglo-Saxon *setlgange*, for *settling*. "The sun sets in the West" is only another form for "The sun settles in the West," in which *settles* is an intransitive verb.

Social for sociable.—*Sociable* means fitted for society, quick to unite with others, usually for pleasure. *Social* denotes the relation of men in society, or communities, or commonwealths. Thus, persons who are quick to join with others in a friendly way are sociable. A man may be deeply interested in social science and yet not be sociable.

State for say.—*State* in the sense of say is a useless word. It really means to set forth the condition under which a person or a thing stands. Thus, a bank states its condition; a debater states a proposition.

Stop for stay.—We *stay* at a hotel, not *stop*. One may stop at a hotel as he stops temporarily at a street-corner, but his remaining for a time at a hotel or other place of entertainment is expressed by the word *stay*.

Storming for raining.—A storm is a commotion of the elements. It needs more than rain to make a storm. Thus, we may have a *wind-storm*, a *hail-storm* of wind and hail, or a *rain-storm* of wind and rain.

Such for so.—*Such*, an adjective, is incorrectly used for *so*. Thus, when one says that he never saw “such a vicious dog,” he means to modify the adjective “vicious,” and he therefore should use the adverb *so*, and express the sentence thus, “I never saw so vicious a dog.”

Than you can help.—This expression is frequently used in such sentences as “Make no more noise than you can help,” which really means “Make no noise that you cannot help,” or “Make all the noise you can.” A better form would be, “Make no noise that you can avoid (or help).”

The first for any.—“*The first*” as a substitute for *any* is an expression for which there seems to be no necessity. The following are fair examples of its improper use for the word *any*: “I haven’t the first objection to your remaining;” “I have yet to see the first instance of any one’s succeeding under such circumstances.”

These kind, those sort, and similar expressions, where an adjective denoting plurality is used to modify a noun in the singular number, are incorrect. The correct forms are “this kind,” “that sort,” etc.

Transpire for occur, pass.—*Transpire* means to breathe through or across. It cannot be used correctly in the sense of *occur* or *pass*. Events *occur* and years *pass*, but neither events nor years *transpire*. It is never correct to use the word “transpire” where the phrase “to take place” can be substituted.

Truism for truth.—A *truism* is a self-evident truth; as, “All men are bipeds.” “The sum of the three angles of a triangle is equal to two right angles” is a truth, but it needs proof or demonstration, and is not therefore a truism.

Try for make.—The word *try* is incorrectly used in

connection with the word experiment. We do not *try* an experiment; we *make* an experiment.

Ugly for **ill-tempered**.—Though not in general use, the word *ugly* is sometimes used for *ill-tempered*. Thus, "He is ugly in his conduct;" "The boy has an ugly disposition." In such cases the word *ill-tempered* is usually the proper substitute for the word *ugly*.

Veracity for **truth**.—These words are synonyms, but the expression "a man of truth and veracity" is frequently used. *Veracity* is properly applied to persons, and *truth*, to statements. Thus, we speak of a man's veracity, but of the truth or truthfulness of an assertion.

Verbal for **oral**.—*Verbal* means consisting of words, which may be either spoken or written. *Oral* refers to spoken words only. A verbal report, so often referred to, is simply a report in words. We should speak of a spoken report, therefore, as an *oral* report.

Vicinity.—The word *vicinity* should not be used without its being preceded by a modifying word. We may say "This city and vicinity" because a modifying word, this, is understood before vicinity, and we may say "Philadelphia and its vicinity," but not "Philadelphia and vicinity."

Widow woman for **widow**.—*Widow* is the proper appellation for a woman whose husband has died. The word *woman* is superfluous. We might as well use the expression "a widower man" as "a widow woman."

Whereabouts.—There is a strong tendency to use this word in the plural, probably because it ends with *s*. Thus, a newspaper says, "The whereabouts of the escaped prisoner are unknown." "His whereabouts have not been discovered." *Whereabouts* is in the singular number. It means simply one's location or abiding-place. Think of saying "His abiding-place are un-

known"! The verb agreeing with "whereabouts" must be in the singular number.

Whole for all. — *Whole* refers to the component parts of a single body. It is therefore singular in meaning. *All* denotes a collection of individuals. It is better, therefore, to say "All of the family are present" than "The whole of the family are present."

The *Spectator* says, "The Red-Cross Knight runs through the whole steps of the Christian life." It should be "all the steps" instead of "the whole steps." Alison, in his "History of the French Revolution," says, "The whole Russians are inspired with the belief that their mission is to conquer the world." He should have said "All the Russians are," etc.

Witness for see. — *Witness* as a verb means to be able to give testimony from personal knowledge. We may *witness* a theft, a murder, or the execution of a deed, in each case so as to be able to give testimony. We *see*, we do not *witness*, a scene, a mountain, a painting, or any other object.

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